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APR 29 1968

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration

March - April 1968

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THE COVER:

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Photograph made by U.S. Department of Agriculture in Nebraska's wheat belt.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Willard Wirtz, Secretary

Manpower Administration
Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Administrator

Bureau of Employment Security
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U.S. Employment Service
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John M. Virden, Editor

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President Johnson's 1968 Farm Message

Prosperity and Progress For the Farmer and Rural America

The farm was here before the factory.

It was the promise of productive land that pushed our people westward, and America was built on a foundation of farms and ranches supplying the food and fiber for a bountiful and restless nation.

It was the farmer's qualities—his hard work and perseverance, his independence and initiative—which gave strength to a nation's character.

Agriculture, our first industry, remains our greatest. It is the vital center of our economy—fueling our industry and commerce, feeding our people and the hungry of the world.

—Almost 18 million Americans work at growing our crops, processing them and shipping them to market, and supplying our farmers.

—Americans spend $125 billion yearly for the products of our agriculture—which brings the family the most nourishing food in the world, at a modest share of its income.

—The harvest of 1 out of every 4 acres moves into foreign markets. Last year, American farm exports set a new record—$6.8 billion.

—Millions of people in other lands live today because of food grown and shipped from American farms.

—Agricultural technology, combined with modern machinery, seeds, and fertilizers, has revolutionized production. Each farmer today grows enough food for 40 persons, compared to only ten 30 years ago.

But the American farmer, who helped to build America's prosperity, still does not fully—or fairly—share in it.

While retail food prices have risen in recent years, the prices the farmer receives have actually declined 9 percent in the past two decades.

Too many rural communities have been bypassed in the climb to abundance, the poverty of its people standing in stark contrast to the wealth of the land.

The Record to Date

Farm-led and farm-fed, the depression of the 1930's plunged American agriculture into its darkest hour. The plight of the farmer was intolerable—5-cent cotton and 20-cent corn, failure and foreclosure.

Out of those grim days, as the Nation regained strength, the basic principles of a national farm policy evolved, guiding the farmer's recovery. Through conservation and credit, price stabilization, and research, a partnership with Government grew. It was a new concept, but it rested on an honored American tradition—that the Nation's strength lies in independent, landowning farmers and ranchers.

When Franklin Roosevelt signed the Agriculture Adjustment Act of 1938—30 years ago this month—he could tell America: "By experience we have learned what must be done to assure agriculture a fair share of an increasing national income, to provide consumers with abundant supplies of food and fiber, to stop waste of soil, and to reduce the gap between huge surpluses and disastrous shortages."

The farmer rose to the challenge of the time as he fed and clothed America's victorious armies of World War II—and, in its aftermath, fed a war-ravaged world.

But in the middle fifties, the farmer fell victim to his own progress and to Government indifference. Production increased while Federal programs faltered. As a result:

—Farm income from 1952 to 1960 dropped by almost 20 percent. Farmers in 1960 netted $2¼ billion less per year than in 1952.

—Farm surpluses swelled. By 1960, the Commodity Credit Corporation had accumulated over $8 billion in stocks.

While farm programs cost the taxpayer more, farmers received less and less.

These were bitter disappointments—and from them we learned much. They led to the constructive programs of the sixties which have already shown these signs of progress:

—Today, net income per farm is 55 percent higher than at the beginning of the decade.

—1966 set an all-time record for gross farm income and net income per farm.

—1967 produced the second highest per-farm income in two decades, even after a disappointing price drop.

—Exports soared to a record $6.8 billion last year, up 51 percent from 1960.

—Price-depressing surpluses in most commodities have been eliminated. Commodity Credit Corporation investments are down $4.5 billion from 1960. Inventories are below $1 billion for the first time since 1953.

The Problem Today

But as significant as these achievements are, their importance to the farmer is diminished by the realities he faces:

—His income lags. It is less than two-thirds the per-capita income of the city dweller.

—His production costs are rising, and he is trapped in a vicious price-cost squeeze.

—For most commodities, he has no practical means of tailoring his output to total demand. Now he grows his crop or raises his livestock—and hopes for a good market. If that market does not come, he will not receive a fair price for the fruits of his toil.

What Is Required

Much will be required to assure the farmer his fair and full share of America's abundance.

First, we must reinforce the partnership between the farmer and his Government.

Like any sound businessman, the agricultural producer seeks a fair return for his efforts and his risks. Yet, because of the individual nature of his operation he does not have the means to assure this return. It is here that he needs the helping hand of his Government.

That partnership works to the benefit of all. For the prosperity of the farmer is of concern to all—from the factory worker who makes the tools and machines the farmer buys, to the family who buys the food and fiber the farmer grows, and to the whole economy which is strengthened by a steady flow of farm income.

Second, we must seek out new ways to solve an old problem—overproduction, the consequence of the American farmer's enormous capacity to produce far more food than we are able to consume. For more than 30 years we have tried to balance supply and demand, to shatter the income-depressing cycle of glut and scarcity.

We have not yet succeeded in reaching that difficult goal—but in recent years we have made great strides. The foundation for progress is now in place with the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965. That act gives us the machinery to tailor production to demand, to produce the right kind of food—at the right time—in the right amounts.

We are learning to operate that new machinery more skillfully now in cooperation with farmers and their organizations.

Still, more is needed to reach the farmer's just goal of parity of income—a fair return for his labor, management, and investment.

I believe 1968 can be the year in which we move closer than ever before to that elusive goal. It can be a year of decision for the American farmer.

I propose a 7-point plan to bring new prosperity to rural America.

1. Permanent extension of the farmer's basic charter—the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965.
2. Continuation of the Food for Freedom Program through 1971.
3. Creation of a National Food Bank—a security reserve of wheat, feed grains, and soybeans to protect the consumer against food scarcity and the farmer against falling prices.
4. New bargaining authority for the farmer, to give him a stronger voice in setting terms and conditions for the sale of his products.
5. Stronger regulatory programs to guard the farmer against fraud in the market place.
6. Aid and hope for the small farmer.
7. Continued revitalization of America's rural heartland by improving men's lives through decent housing, better jobs, and more rapid community development.

Taken together, these measures can hasten the day when the men and women who grow our food can share more fully in the abundance they help to create.

The Food and Agriculture Act

The Food and Agriculture Act of 1965 is the backbone of our support for the farmer.

—For the first time, it recognized that stabilizing the market supply of our basic commodities—wheat, feed grains, and cotton—is a continuing, not a temporary, problem.

—It established price supports at near-world levels for these major commodities—with payments to stabilize incomes and acreage allotment programs to prevent surpluses from piling up.

—It provided the flexibility to adjust the farmer's production to meet domestic needs, export demand, and projected shipments under the Food for Freedom Program.

Two years after its passage, the act faced a severe test. Larger wheat and feed grain allotments for 1967 crops set under the act were followed by a series of unforeseen events: worldwide bumper crops, smaller total demand—and lower prices for the farmer. These are the uncertainties to which every estimate—involving millions of acres, millions of tons of food, and the variability of weather—is subject.

Those events of 1967 once more spurred the old cry: "Get the Government out of agriculture."

But the 1965 act did not fail the farmer.

Direct payments under the act provided the margin between profit and loss for many producers: an additional 48 cents for each bushel of wheat, 15 cents for each pound of cotton, 20 cents for each bushel of corn.

To terminate the 1965 act would bring catastrophe and ruin to many farmers.

Cash prices to the farmer would fall—and there would be no Government payments to cushion the impact. Farm income could drop by as much as one-third—back to 1959 levels.

—Wheat prices would drop to about $1.10 a bushel, compared with the 1967 blend price of $1.89, including the wheat certificate.

—Corn prices would drop to about 75 cents a bushel, compared with a blend price of $1.30 in 1967.

—Cotton would sell for 18 cents a pound, compared with 42 cents in 1967 with price-support payments.

—With lower grain prices, livestock supplies would soon overburden the market so that livestock prices would decline by at least 10 percent.

Certainly the act can be improved. Suggestions to strengthen it should be carefully reviewed. But it must be continued.

This should be permanent legislative authority. The need for price protection will not end in 1—or 2—or even the 4 years provided in the 1965 act.

While the Congress may choose to modify these programs in future years, the farmer should not run the risk of sudden termination of this vital protection. Only permanent authority will assure that he is never the innocent victim of a program lapse.

Although the act does not expire until 1969, it should be extended this year. Before this Congress adjourns, the 1969 wheat program must be announced. And before Congress meets in 1969, final year programs for all the other commodities under the current act must be announced.

The agricultural producer, like all prudent businessmen, should be in a position to make his plans well in advance.

To postpone consideration of this vital leigslation until next year would create grave risks for the American farmer.

I recommend that the Congress begin hearings at the earliest possible date to extend the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965.

Food for Freedom

The clock continues to tick in the developing nations—as the shadow of hunger threatens to turn into a nightmare of famine.

That awesome problem has long summoned America's attention. Since World War II, we have helped meet world food needs with contributions from the storehouse of our agricultural abundance. In 1966, I proposed that the United States lead the world in a war against hunger. At that time, I asked the Congress to join in a new and concerted food aid program—Food for Freedom. Two years of achievement show that the program was wise as well as compassionate:

—The bounty from America's farmlands and granaries has rescued millions of people from the brink of starvation.

—Developing nations are helping themselves through national policies centering on agricultural development.

—Sales are now shifting from foreign currencies to dollars. This repayment trend will improve our own balance of payments.

—Food shipments are creating future overseas markets for the products of our farms and our industry, as the economies of developing nations grow stronger.

This lifeline of hope to the needy of the world cannot be withdrawn. The Food for Freedom Program expires at the end of this year.

I recommend that the Congress continue the Food for Freedom Program for 3 more years—to December 31, 1971.

As before, our efforts must be rooted in self-help. Aid that does not encourage the maximum effort of each nation to feed its own people is illusory—and a deception to those who receive it.

Our efforts must also continue to be grounded in world cooperation, because hunger is a world problem which must be met by many nations.

The Kennedy Round turned that principle to action as other nations joined the United States in the International Grains Agreement.

I recently asked the Senate to approve that Agreement. It calls for a 3-year program of food aid. Participating nations have agreed to supply 4.5 million tons of grain annually. The U.S. share—1.9 million tons—will be met as part of the Food for Freedom Program.

The Grains Agreement is good news for the American farmer. It provides new insurance against falling wheat prices. And it builds new cash customers for his products.

I again urge the Senate to ratify the International Grains Agreement at the earliest possible time.

Security Commodity Reserve—A National Food Bank

When the talk is of farm surpluses, the term "food scarcity" has an unrealistic ring. Yet even America is not completely immune from a natural disaster or some other emergency that could imperil our food supply.

America's food stocks are also affected by another factor—our humane response to the hardship and hunger that may strike other nations.

In the light of these contingencies, *we must develop a national food strategy* to assure that:

—Production is sufficient to meet domestic needs.

—Additional production is scaled to meet requirements for exports and food aid shipments.

—A security reserve is on hand to protect against unforeseen emergencies or variations between production estimates and actual need.

The Food and Agriculture Act of 1965 and the Food for Freedom Program provide a solid basis for this national strategy. Acreage allotments established under the 1965 act are based on anticipated domestic consumption and foreign demand. Food for Freedom shipments furnished an important part of that total demand.

But, as we have learned, no system of estimates can be precise. Searing winds, drought, and flood can deplete production quickly and cause scarcity. And as we have also learned, surplus stocks—even when temporary—can depress the farmer's income.

What America needs is a National Food Bank—where deposits can be made in time of plenty, and withdrawals in time of shortage.

Last year, legislation was introduced to create such a bank—a security reserve of wheat, feed grains, and soybeans. Hearings have been held in both Houses.

I urge the Congress to complete consideration of this important legislation at the earliest possible date. This Administration will continue its strong support of a measure which includes these principles:

—The establishment of a reserve owned by farmers through strengthened reseal provisions in the price-support program. The farmer would control sales from a part of this reserve, but some of these stocks would be held under long-term arrangements for emergency use.

—Authority for the Secretary of Agriculture to purchase an additional reserve at market prices. It should not be necessary for prices to drop to the support levels to add to the reserve stocks held by the Government.

—Insulation of this Food Bank from the commercial market. The Secretary of Agriculture should not sell reserve stocks at less than parity adjusted for Government payments.

A national Food Bank can provide important protection for *all* Americans.

—The *farmer* will not have to bear the burden of

depressed prices when production exceeds current needs.

—The *consumer* will be protected from unanticipated food scarcity.

—The *Government* will have a reserve stock "cushion" in making acreage allotment decisions, and in responding to international emergencies.

Farmer Bargaining Power

Government programs for wheat, feed grains, cotton, or other basic commodities strengthen the bargaining power of participating farmers. Under the loan program with its recently expanded reseal privileges, the farmer can hold his crop for a better market.

But items which provide 60 percent of gross farm income—including livestock, poultry, fruits, and vegetables—are not covered by Government price support and payment programs.

The producer sells these commodities for what the market will bear.

This is fair enough—if the farmer has the power to bargain effectively with those to whom he sells. But he does not.

—There are millions of farmers and their power is diffused and fragmented. In contrast, the distributors and processors who buy the farmer's products are relatively few and well organized.

—Farmers do not have the means to tailor carefully their production to market demands. If they produce too much, they have little hope for a decent price at market time.

—Most businessmen can set a price for their goods. Most farmers must sell their products for "what they can get."

In some ways, Government action helps the farmer to bargain for better terms in the marketplace. Government purchases under section 32, food stamp, school lunch, milk, and commodity distribution programs create additional demand—and even out over-supplies which could depress prices.

Still, the Government is—and can be—a customer for only a fraction of the total market.

The fact remains that the farmer does not have the bargaining power he needs—he still does not have the ability to price his products for a fair profit.

Some farmers—in cooperatives and marketing associations—have found that their collective voice is far stronger than individual efforts. They have utilized marketing orders and marketing contracts to achieve higher prices and better terms of sale.

They are the pioneers.

Now thousands of other farmers are beginning to think about farmer bargaining.

They seek an end to the frustration caused by their lack of bargaining power.

They see the opportunities for lower costs and better prices through market organization and coordination of supply.

They know the value of transforming haphazard farm production into steady flows of products of uniform quality—fitted to the needs of our modern food industry.

Several months ago, I directed the Secretary of Agriculture to study the various bargaining and marketing tools available to agricultural producers.

I asked agricultural economists and other experts from outside the Government to participate in this effort. The farm organizations have taken leading roles in advancing bargaining techniques.

It is now time for the Congress to join in this effort.

I urge the House and Senate Committees on Agriculture to hold hearings this session on the various means of strengthening farmer bargaining power in the marketplace.

Among the issues the hearings should consider are these:

—Will bargaining efforts be equally effective for all commodities?

—What kind of bargaining unit should farmers establish?

—For what should farmers bargain? Better price? Uniform quality? Other terms of sale?

—Should the bargaining unit be able to limit marketing or production to meet bargaining objectives? If so, how should these limitations be administered or enforced?

One matter is clear. The Government may act as an adviser, or it may serve as an umpire. But the plan must be designed for farmers to use if they choose. It cannot be forced upon them. Under any proposal, farmers must make their own decisions and control their own destinies.

Upon completion of these studies and the congressional hearings, we will make specific recommendations for action.

Fraudulent Practices and Unfair Competition

Fraudulent and deceptive practices sap the vitality of our economy. In the case of the farmer, they impose special hazards and handicaps. Wherever these practices are found, they must be rooted out.

Last week, I was proud to sign a measure guarding against fraud and manipulation in the Nation's commodity exchanges.

But there is still unfinished farmer protection business before Congress.

I urge the Congress to modernize the Packers and Stockyards Act.

This act is intended to safeguard livestock and poultry producers against cases of deceit, fraud, and unfair competition. The present law has failed to keep pace with developments in the livestock and poultry industries since the act was first adopted almost half a century ago.

Life in Rural America

The proposals I have discussed to this point are designed to place American commercial agriculture on a sounder and stronger footing.

But this is only half the battle.

For there are thousands of men and women in rural America who need a different kind of help.

The statistics tell the grim story:

—Farm employment has fallen by 46 percent between 1950 and 1967.

—Nearly 1.5 million small farmers earn less than $5,000 per year. Their resources are meager and they have little to sell. Their existence may hang on a thin thread: a few acres of tobacco and cotton, an old-age pension, and the food stamp program.

—The rate of unemployment and underemployment in rural America far exceeds the national average.

—10 million people in rural America—one in every five falls under the poverty line, and millions of families live in housing that shames a modern nation.

What promise is there for the sharecropper who has been replaced by a machine? What new job will open up to the 50-year-old farmer who has spent his entire life working the soil? What future can a young farm boy aspire to, when only one out of 10 can expect to earn a living as a full-time farmer?

Unprepared and untrained—with nowhere else to go—they have left the land they know and streamed into the teeming slums of American cities.

The problem they pose touches us all. It is a problem of urban America no less than rural America.

We have long spoken of parity of opportunity for rural Americans. I speak now of making that promise a reality.

It will require action—both long and short range. The foundation of that effort has been built.

—The war on poverty is quietly transforming the lives of thousands of men and women in rural America.

—"Operation Outreach," launched last year, brings 90 Federal programs, from health to housing, from education to economic development, to the countryside. Under the coordination of the Secretary of Agriculture, technical action panels organized at the regional, State, district, and county level are assuring that these programs turn into effective action for the people.

Food Stamps

But some people still go hungry in rural America.

The Food Stamp Program has been an effective instrument to supplement the purchasing power of low-income families. When I signed the Food Stamp Act of 1964, the program was being tested in 43 areas. Today, it is operating in over 850 counties. By early summer, it will extend to 1,200, providing the basic essential of life to over 2 million needy men, women, and children.

I recommend that the 1969 appropriation authorization for the Food Stamp Program be increased from $225 million to $245 million.

The Small Farmer

Many of our poorest farmers cannot leave the farm for other work. They are untrained. And they have passed the age when job opportunities can open up a new life. They are boxed in.

They cannot "go into something else," for there is no place else to go. But they can be aided more effectively—and economically—on the farm.

I have directed the Secretary of Agriculture to focus the full range of the programs under his jurisdiction to help the small farmer

I am also proposing legislation that will:

—Increase funds available to small farmers to begin new farm and nonfarm enterprises, and to provide credit to help the farmer to convert his land into income-producing recreation areas.

—Improve the loan program for grazing associations.

—Establish a credit program for rural cooperatives now ineligible for assistance from the banks for cooperatives or the poverty program.

I am also asking the Congress to appropriate additional funds to help low-income ranchers, who depend on national forest lands for much of their livestock grazing, and to increase technical assistance to cooperatives owned by small farmers.

Rural Electrification

Thirty years ago, the lights went on across the farmlands of America. Rural electrification liberated the farmer and his family from the tyranny of darkness.

Lights, appliances, radios—all the conveniences of modern living—replaced the kerosene lamp and the flickering candle. Electricity eased the farmer's burden and brought industry and jobs to rural America.

Rural electrification is a great American success story.

We must advance that success and bring it up to date by assuring the growth of the Nation's rural electrification systems in the areas they have been called upon to serve. Those systems must have access, under fair and reasonable rates, to bulk power supplies. In this way, they can continue to provide a reliable, uninterrupted, and inexpensive flow of electricity into America's farm communities on a par with more populous communities.

Rural Housing

There are places in the hollows and small country towns that look as if America had never moved forward from the grim days of depression.

Over 3 million families outside our metropolitan areas live in ramshackle and dilapidated dwellings.

More than half of the Nation's 6 million substandard housing units are outside our metropolitan areas.

But our Federal housing programs have not been able to reach effectively enough into those dusty roads of a bypassed America.

I propose that we move now to correct this situation.

First, I have already recommended legislation to launch a new program, in cooperation with industry and labor, to add 6 million new housing units over the next 10 years for families with low and moderate incomes.

I am directing the Secretary of Housing and Urban Development to work with the Secretary of Agriculture in bringing this new program to our rural areas.

Much of the necessary assistance can be rendered by the Farmers Home Administration. For more than three decades, it has helped provide home financing for rural citizens.

I want to make certain that the residents of rural America participate fully in this important housing program.

Second, I have recommended legislation which will:

—Authorize the Secretary of Agriculture to reduce the interest rates for low- and moderate-income families so they can borrow under existing rural housing loan programs.

—Broaden the eligibility for credit under the rural housing loan program.

—Make low-income nonrural residents who have jobs in rural areas eligible for housing loans.

Third, I have directed the Secretary of Housing and Urban Development to insure that the rent supplement program has maximum impact in rural as well as urban areas.

Jobs and Rural Development

The rural American displaced by technology has a proud heritage of hard work. He does not want welfare. He wants a job.

If the jobs are in the cities, men will move there.

Eighteen months ago, in Dallastown, Pa., I said: "History records a long, hard struggle to establish man's right to go where he pleases and to live where he chooses. . . . We lose that freedom when our children are obliged to live someplace else if they want a job or if they want a decent education. Not just sentiment demands that we do more to help our farms and rural communities. I think the welfare of this Nation demands it. And . . . I think the future of the cities of America demands it, too."

Today 70 percent of our people live on 1 percent of our land. By the turn of the century—if present trends continue—there will be 240 million Americans living in urban areas occupying only 4 percent of this great and spacious Nation.

I think we can change this trend by setting a goal of full parity of opportunity for rural America. Industry, technology, and transportation can bring jobs to the countryside rather than people to the cities. And Government must help.

In our growing economy, private enterprise—today—is creating thousands of new jobs in the small towns of America. We can do more to develop job opportunities and to provide assistance to those who want work.

With legislation now on the books, we can move to reduce rural underemployment and unemployment by the end of 1968. I have directed:

—The Secretaries of Commerce and Agriculture to develop an expanded credit program for firms seeking to locate new plants in rural areas.

—The Secretary of Commerce and the Administrator of the Small Business Administration to give top priority to loans for the construction of industrial buildings in rural areas.

—The Secretary of Labor to extend work training and job counseling programs. With the Census Bureau, he will undertake regular surveys of labor market conditions in rural areas.

—The Secretaries of Agriculture, Labor, and Health, Education, and Welfare and the Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity to coordinate expanded areawide manpower planning, and concerted education and training services.

—The Secretary of Housing and Urban Development and the Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity to help finance the creation of additional community centers where the rural resident can have access to all the programs designed to help him and his family.

—The Secretary of Labor to extend the Concentrated Employment Program, which brings together a wide range of manpower and related services in selected geographical areas, to an additional 70 areas—35 of them rural.

In addition, I have recommended legislation which would provide training facilities—and temporary housing during training—to enable low-income rural residents to prepare for improved employment opportunities.

But jobs alone are not enough to make the countryside more livable and more convenient for rural Americans. What is needed is a restoration of rural-urban balance—a balance that assures rural America its full, fair share of educational, economic, social, and cultural opportunity.

To help accomplish this, I recommend that the Congress:

—Increase Federal programs to assist rural communities in building modern water and sewer systems.

—Extend the period of eligibility for grants for comprehensive water and sewer projects.

—Authorize recreation projects in Resource Conservation and Development areas.

—Appropriate funds for 10 new multicounty, multipurpose Resource Conservation and Development areas during fiscal 1969. This will give the Nation 51 such areas, encompassing 100 million acres.

In addition, I urge the Congress to take action on two important measures pending before it:

—To finance comprehensive planning for groups of rural counties. Such planning can help rural communities attract business and industry and make better use of Federal programs. It can help neighboring communities pool their resources—health, education, training—to meet the common needs of their people.

—To provide additional sources of financing for rural telephone systems. We must continue to build and upgrade our telephone systems to speed economic development and community growth.

The Special Need

Our earliest destiny was shaped by those who, in Jefferson's words, "labor in the earth."

The hand that worked the plow—that led the team—that husked the corn—was the hand that guided America to its greatness.

The stability and endurance of the farmer are a priceless part of our Nation's heritage. His love of the land expresses the American dream—that a man should be able to shape his own destiny with his own hands.

The American farmer today stands in the proud tradition of generations of his fathers.

But he is faced, as no generation before him, with the problems of an accelerating technology. It is bringing fundamental and forceful change to the farmer and the rural community.

The farmer and the rural community need Government's help, and Government must respond.

Since I have been President, I have been proud to sign 184 measures designed to assist farmers and the rural community. Each of these has filled a special need.

The proposals I have outlined in this message continue that vital work.

This is a total program—one for the years ahead as well as for today—through which the American farmer can claim his place and privilege in the life of his Nation.

LYNDON B. JOHNSON

THE WHITE HOUSE
February 27, 1968.

Applicants were tested to determine their aptitudes for work.

Manpower Development in Rural Areas*

JOHN S. MCCAULEY

Pilot projects in three rural counties in Arkansas, Minnesota, and New Mexico have demonstrated the effectiveness of a cooperative concerted services approach for improving the education and training of residents of rural areas and, consequently, increasing the employment opportunities of such residents. Six Federal agencies have joined hands with State and local groups to bring new educational and training opportunities to Saint Francis County, Ark.; Todd County, Minn. (see EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW, October 1966); and Sandoval County, N. Mex. These new programs are making it possible for

*From an address before the Mid-Continent Regional Manpower Advisory Committee at Denver, Colo., February 9, 1968.

Dr. John S. McCauley is Special Assistant (Manpower Program Development), U.S. Employment Service.

hundreds of unemployed and underemployed persons to obtain full-time jobs. Steps are now being taken to expand the programs within these counties and to extend this promising new approach to other rural communities.

The development of the concerted services approach and its implementation is on an experimental basis. The purpose of these surveys is to determine which programs are most urgently needed, what arrangements should be made to provide educational and training programs, and what measures must be taken to encourage residents to use the new opportunities.

Development of the Concerted Services Approach

Need for a new approach to rural manpower development became increasingly evident in the early 1960's when it was recognized that rural counties were not participating as effectively as urban areas in the new Federal education and manpower programs. Most rural communities provided only limited opportunities for education and employment. In addition, health and welfare services were generally far more limited than those available in urban areas.

This situation is still much in evidence. Nearly half the poverty in the United States is in rural America. One in three rural families has a cash income of less than $3,000 a year. The families of hired farmworkers, migratory farmworkers, and sharecroppers are chronically poor, often with incomes less than $1,000 a year. Although farm families are presently a very small fraction of all U.S. families, they account for much of the observed poverty. Futhermore, many of the families in urban areas whose earning capacity is very low have recently come from farm areas. Outmigration has taken some of the community leaders and has depleted the supply of more productive workers, while the apathy and frustrations caused by continued failure and the accumulated effects of inadequate nutrition and health care affect many of those who remain.

The market for skills required in agriculture has long been depressed. The quality of elementary and secondary schooling in many farm communities is far below par. Thus, the oncoming generation from these areas is ill-prepared to take advantage of the strong market for high skills in other parts of the economy.

Few rural residents are aware of the existence of programs which could help them. Moreover, most rural counties do not possess the technical competence required to analyze their manpower needs and they fail to make application for government help. The few programs that do become established usually are capable of meeting only a portion of the problems which confront the rural resident. In order to make these programs truly effective, it is essential to provide additional supportive aid designed to meet the total needs of the individuals concerned.

In recognition of the need to develop a cooperative approach by Federal agencies to meet these problems, an interagency task force was established in 1964, under the joint chairmanship of Dr. Walter Arnold of the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and myself, from the U.S. Employment Service, U.S. Department of Labor. The task force was set up by the cabinet-level Rural Development Committee which had been established by Executive Order of the President in October 1963. The task force currently includes representatives from the Departments of Agriculture; Commerce; Health, Education, and Welfare; Housing and Urban Development; Labor; and the Small Business Administration. Some of the staff members involved in this effort had served on the Joint Task Force on

Basic education classes were provided under the Economic Opportunity Act.

Health, Education, and Welfare Services and Housing, which was established in December 1961, with Wilbur J. Cohen, Under Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, and Marie C. McGuire, Commissioner of Public Housing, as codirectors.

Objectives of Pilot Projects

After considerable discussion and review of the problems involved in developing educational and training programs in rural areas, the task force established the following major objectives for the pilot projects in Arkansas, New Mexico, and Minnesota:

1. Development of general operational patterns for concentrating the efforts and available resources of the participating agencies on the alleviation and ultimate solution of occupational education problems, and, as necessary, on the health, welfare, socioeconomic, and related problems of those residing in the three communities.

2. Identification of existing, as well as potential, employment opportunities and occupational education programs available to youth and to adults who are unemployed or whose income is insufficient to maintain a respectable standard of living.

3. Development of ways through which these rural communities can provide education, vocational guidance, training, and other services needed to help people become employable. This includes development of plans for:

   a. Increasing basic educational skills,
   b. Improving general conditions of health,
   c. Improving appearance and personal characteristics,
   d. Providing vocational counseling, and
   e. Developing occupational competency.

4. Demonstration that occupational education programs, in conjunction with other economic development activities, can significantly increase employment opportunities.

5. Demonstration that a cooperative occupational education effort, based on local involvement, will develop indigenous leadership, individual dignity, initiative, and community awareness—resulting in continuing community development.

6. Determination of the relationship of the traditional educational and occupational patterns of people in the communities to their present and emerging needs and, if warranted, development of recommendations for necessary adjustments.

Approach Used

In planning for a concerted services approach, the task force placed heavy emphasis on developing flexible arrangements which could be adapted to meet local needs and, at the same time, could operate within the existing budgets of the participating agencies.

It was agreed to observe the following guidelines:

1. Education and training programs were to be designed to meet specific needs identified by a survey carried out by the public employment service in collaboration with local advisory committees.

2. Every resident of the pilot counties was to be considered a potential participant, with preference given to persons needing additional education and training in order to obtain employment.

3. The right of each individual to decide the nature and extent of his own participation was to be respected. Persons desiring education and training in order to qualify for employment outside the county were to receive the same consideration as persons who planned to remain in the county.

4. Each agency's normal channels of communication, administration, and project funding were to be followed to the fullest extent possible.

5. A coordinator under the general supervision of the task force was to be employed in each county.

In order to explain the concerted services approach and to discuss the proposed pilot projects, members of the task force and the executive secretary of the cabinet-level committee met with regional officials of the Federal agencies participating in the program. Regional staff members then arranged a series of meetings with governors and other State officials. The time and effort involved in these discussions were well spent, as the State and regional officials developed a deep interest in the concerted services approach and were most helpful in getting the pilot projects into operation.

In order to assure the necessary coordination and to give the needed "spark" to the project, coordinators were selected who had a high degree of familiarity with the particular county. For example, in Saint Francis County, Edgar Henderson, Jr., who had been a high school teacher and basketball and football coach in the area for 16 years, was chosen coordinator. An office was provided in Forrest City about two blocks from the heart of the business district. Directly across the street from the office was the training facility where education and training programs are provided under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.

Arrangements for employing the county coordinator in Arkansas were handled by the Federal-State employment security system; in Minnesota, by the Agricultural Extension Division; and in New Mexico, by the Vocational Education system. C. B. Gilliland of the U.S. Department of Agriculture provided liaison between the task force and the coordinators.

Advisory committees appointed in each of the counties represented a cross section of the community. For example, the Saint Francis County Advisory Committee was chaired by W. W. Campbell, Board Chairman of the First National Bank of Eastern Arkansas, and included businessmen, local officials, lawyers, and farm organization officials.

Machine tool students may advance into design courses. The man in the picture is a union representative on the advisory committee for the school.

The following description of the Saint Francis County program reflects the manner in which the concerted services approach has been implemented in this county.

Saint Francis County Program

Saint Francis County covers an area of 638 square miles and is located in northeast Arkansas, approximately 40 miles from the Mississippi River. The county has a total population of approximately 33,000. Forrest City, the county seat, has had some industrial expansion over the past 2 years, primarily in the electronics industry. However, agriculture is the major activity of the county as a whole, the chief crops being soybeans, cotton, and rice. The per-capita income, as indicated by the 1960 census, was only $962.

The county is served by a 110-bed hospital and two hospital clinics with a total of 11 hospital beds. In 1966, there were 5,224 telephone customers in the county. The county has a newspaper, the Forrest City DAILY TIMES HERALD with a circulation of 3,850, and a 5,000-watt radio station. Although there is no local television station, county residents can pick up three Memphis and three Little Rock channels.

Survey of Needs and Resources

The first step in assisting the community was to make careful assessments of (1) the manpower needs of employers and (2) the education and training needs of individuals. An Arkansas Employment Service mobile team of seven interviewer-counselors, operating under the Smaller Communities Program, contacted employers and workers. In an effort to facilitate the gathering of information from widely dispersed county residents, mobile teams set up temporary headquarters in 19 different locations, including Forest City. Seventeen of these itinerant offices were located in communities with less than 750 population. The teams operated out of churches, country stores, and other available rent-free facilities.

One of the best responses from county residents was obtained at the Pilgrim Rest Baptist Church, located in a small rural community. With the cooperation of church and other officials, the Employment Service team was able to register and process 110 applicants in 1 day. These limited facilities sometimes challenged the ingenuity of the staff. In order to keep nighttime office hours at the Baptist Church, which had no electricity, the team furnished its own light, using 6-volt light bulbs powered by a car battery.

The Arkansas Employment Security Division teams spent 6 months in Saint Francis County. During that time, they contacted 3,760 applicants, approximately two-thirds of whom were not registered with the Employment Service local office in Forrest City. While serving these applicants, the mobile team tested 1,004 persons and counseled 527. As of July 31, 1967, 381 persons registered with the team had been placed in jobs from a total of 873 referrals. In addition to job referrals, 196 of the persons registered with the mobile team had been enrolled in educational and training programs.

Results of the survey of manpower and other resources in Saint Francis County were published in

September and October 1966 by the Arkansas Employment Security Division. The survey report brought the manpower capabilities and economic potential of the area into sharp focus, which created both a selling point for bringing new employers into the area and a climate for expanding existing facilities. Special compilations of information contained in the report have also been used by chambers of commerce in various communities within the county in attempts to attract new industry. Furthermore, the labor economist assigned to the mobile team developed a fact sheet to be used in conjunction with industrial development efforts. The fact sheet provided current information on population, work force, the skills of those persons covered in the Employment Service manpower inventory, weekly wage rates for selected occupations, information on nearby metropolitan areas, a list of industrial sites, transportation facilities, natural resources available in the area, and the available power resources.

Educational and Training Programs

The Forrest City Employment Security Division office has used the information gathered on the characteristics of the work force in developing MDTA training projects. As of September 30, 1967, MDTA training had been organized for 420 persons, including 207 who had successfully completed training as welders, licensed practical nurses, operating engineers, and in a variety of occupations in the general field of electronics. Another 109 are currently enrolled in MDTA training. Without the communications and publicity brought about by the concerted services project, recruiting applicants who could benefit from this training would have been much more difficult.

Another 795 persons were enrolled in basic education courses. Classes for 42 persons were conducted under the provisions of Title V of the Economic Opportunity Act. Classes in basic education were also provided in collaboration with the out-of-school Neighborhood Youth Corps program. Basic education for another group of 30 trainees was coupled with an MDTA welding program.

Community Action Agency

The Concerted Services Coordinator has worked with local officials in establishing a Community Action Agency that began operation in the county in March 1966. This agency established the following programs: summer Head-Start, summer NYC, out-of-school NYC, and Off-Campus College Work Study. As a result of the liaison that had been established in rural areas by the Smaller Communities Program, a Neighborhood Resident Workers Program was begun and has been able to improve communication with these rural people. Under the program, nonprofessional workers are making contacts in the neighborhoods, passing on pertinent information concerning activities of Adult Basic Education, Manpower Development and Training Programs, Job Corps, Head-Start, Vocational Education, Employment Security Division, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Farmers Home Administration, and other services now available.

New Vocational School

Concurrent with the activities of the Concerted Services Program in Saint Francis County has been the development of a vocational education program. The Crowley's Ridge Vocational-Technical School opened in September 1967. Training has been made available for the individual concerned with upgrading, updating, retraining, and self-improvement. Under the direction of Conway Wilson, director of Crowley's Ridge Vocational-Technical School, 459 students have already graduated from various home economics and training extension courses taught at various sites scattered throughout the county. In addition, 126 trainees are currently upgrading their skills as electronics handlers, analyzers and assemblers, whereas in October 1965 hardly any vocational education existed. Many of these students were recruited by the local public employment office, and all were screened through the local office.

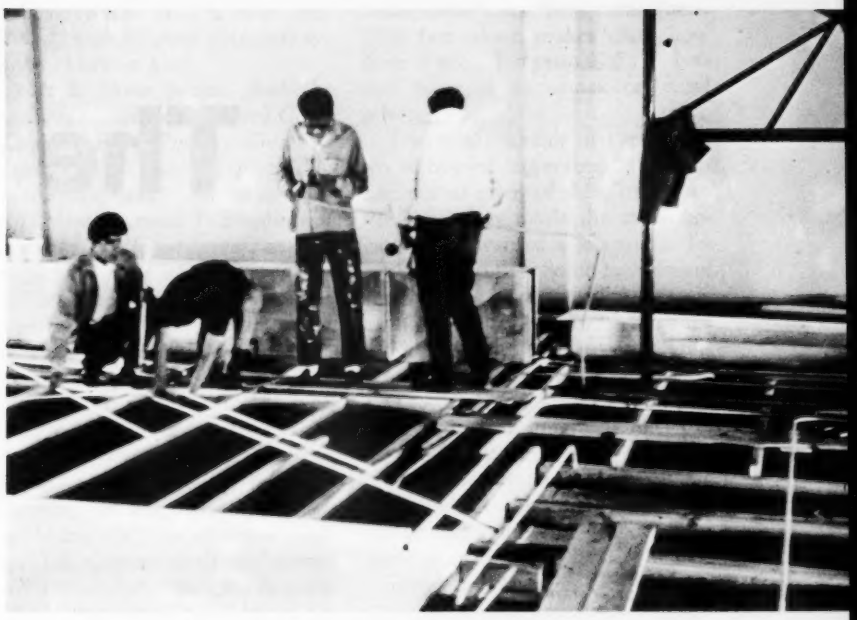
Other Services

The names and addresses of 700 heads of households which lacked indoor water or sewage facilities were given to the local Farmers Home Administration office. The local FHA home economist contacted 126 of these persons whose net family income fell below the $3,000 poverty level to inform them of low interest FHA loans which could be used for the improvement of water and sewage facilities. In addition, the Arkansas State Department of Health, Bureau of Sanitary Engineering, has developed a report analyzing the number of sanitary facilities available to those persons covered in the inventory. As a result, it was recommended that a sanitarian be employed in Saint Francis County to assist in securing proper sewage disposal and in improving the water supply.

Another aspect of the economic development of Saint Francis County is the creation of a recreation facility known as the Village Creek Project, located in the northern part of the county between Wynne and Forrest City. This project will involve the creation of a 1,200-acre manmade lake and adjoining recreational facilities on land which heretofore was 90 percent unusable. The Saint Francis Wildlife Association has supported this project and cooperated in a survey of interest on the part of area landowners. The results of this survey were surprising. Almost all the persons canvassed were interested in having such a facility located in the area. Some even indicated a willingness to donate part of the land.

The Soil Conservation Service conducted a survey for the damsite,

USDA photos.



Students in carpentry, sheet metal, and electricity convert a school gymnasium into quarters for vocational education.

and a consulting engineers' firm was retained to make borings and soil tests. It was determined that location of a dam in the Crowley Ridge area would be economically feasible. The Saint Francis Wildlife Association then urged the State Planning Commission, the State Game and Fish Commission, and the Parks and Publicity Commission to designate a State park to be located in eastern Arkansas. Both houses of the Arkansas Legislature voted unanimously to locate this park in the Crowley Ridge area of the county. The development of the recreation facility and the completion of the improved highway system between Saint Francis County, Memphis, and Little Rock should be a major step forward in the economic growth of the area. It is unlikely that this project would have reached its present stage of development without the concerted services approach.

Close working relationships have been maintained with cooperatives. For example, members of the Saint Francis County Vegetable Grower Cooperative participated in an MDTA training program designed to assist them in improving their operations. Plans are also being made to provide with OEO funds a course in administration for officials of cooperatives.

Plans to Expand the Project

The three pilot projects have been in operation only 2 years. Despite this short time, there is general agreement that the concerted services approach has been highly successful. Residents of the three counties have taken advantage of the additional educational and training opportunities that have been provided. They are especially pleased with the expansion in job opportunities that has been associated with this project. As a result of the progress that has been made, the pilot projects will be continued for at least another year.

Requests for similar projects have been received from adjacent counties and arrangements have been made to extend the program in Arkansas to Cross and Lee Counties. The pilot projects in Minnesota and New Mexico will also be extended to adjacent counties. Plans are now underway to organize pilot projects in other States.

The following measures would enhance any expansion of the program:

1. Program expansion within the counties currently conducting pilot projects should be accelerated. Some residents who need additional education and training are not yet participating. Persons who have already completed one aspect of the program should be encouraged to take additional courses as needed.

2. In extending the program to adjacent counties, consideration should be given to the establishment of satellite centers to provide partial services there. This approach for expanding concerted services projects would eliminate the cost of establishing a coordinator in every

(*Continued on page 25*)

The People Left Behind

By passing the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Congress declared it to be the policy of the United States to obliterate poverty.

Since that date, antipoverty programs of unusual scope and variety have been developed and put into action by the Federal, State, and local governments, and by numerous private organizations representing business, labor, church, civic, and other interested groups. Many of these programs have made significant inroads in poverty areas. Much still remains to be done in the battle against poverty.

A major area that requires much effort is rural America. Many rural families are living below the poverty level, all too often, far below. These are the people left behind. They have scarcely been touched by the antipoverty war as it is now constituted, with its great emphasis toward the urban poor.

It is to these people that the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty directs its attention in its recent report. The Commission, under the chairmanship of Gov. Edward T. Breathitt of Kentucky, was to investigate and assemble the facts of rural poverty, analyze them, and make specific recommendations to the President through the Cabinet Committee on Poverty.

Before framing its recommendations, the Commission obtained information from numerous sources, public and private. The firsthand testimony of the rural poor was sought and obtained at public hearings. The Commission's staff assembled and analyzed data made available by numerous institutions, including Federal, State, and local agencies. Also, members of the staff and leading authorities outside the staff conducted original research for the Commission.

While many agencies will be involved in activities arising from the recommendations of the Commission, the Manpower Administration and the Employment Service will find major tasks to perform in overcoming the poverty of rural America.

The following is the summary of the report of the Commission. It is a portion of the Commission's official report, which was published under the title "The People Left Behind."

This report is about a problem which many in the United States do not realize exists. The problem is rural poverty. It affects some 14 million Americans. Rural poverty is so widespread, and so acute, as to be a national disgrace, and its consequences have swept into our cities, violently.

The urban riots during 1967 had their roots, in considerable part, in rural poverty. A high proportion of the people crowded into city slums today came there from rural slums. This fact alone makes clear how large a stake the people of this Nation have in an attack on rural poverty.

The total number of rural poor would be even larger than 14 million had not so many of them moved to the city. They made the move because they wanted a job and a decent place to live. Some have found them. Many have not. Many merely exchanged life in a rural slum for life in an urban slum, at an exorbitant cost to themselves, to the cities, and to rural America as well.

Even so, few migrants have returned to the rural areas they left. They have apparently concluded that bad as conditions are in an urban slum, they are worse in the rural slum they fled from. There is evidence in the pages of this report to support their conclusion.

This Nation has been largely oblivious to these 14 million impoverished people left behind in rural America. Our programs for rural America are woefully out of date.

Some of our rural programs, especially farm and vocational agriculture programs, are relics from an earlier era. They were developed in a period during which the welfare of farm families was equated with the well-being of rural communities and of all rural people. This no longer is so.

They were developed without anticipating the vast changes in technology, and the consequences of this technology to rural people. Instead of combating low incomes of rural people, these programs have helped to create wealthy landowners while largely bypassing the rural poor.

Most rural programs still do not take the speed and consequences of technological change into account. We have not yet adjusted to the fact that in the brief period of 15 years from 1950 to 1965, new machines and new methods increased farm output in the United States by 45 percent—and reduced farm employ-

ment by 45 percent. Nor is there adequate awareness that during the next 15 years the need for farm labor will decline by another 45 percent. Changes like these on the farm are paralleled on a broader front throughout rural America, affecting many activities other than farming and touching many more rural people than those on farms.

Few Spokesmen

In contrast to the urban poor, the rural poor, notably the white, are not well organized, and have few spokesmen for bringing the Nation's attention to their problems. The more vocal and better organized urban poor gain most of the benefits of current antipoverty programs.

Until the past few years, the Nation's major social welfare and labor legislation largely bypassed rural Americans, especially farmers and farmworkers. Farm people were excluded from the Social Security Act until the mid-1950's. Farmers, farmworkers, and workers in agriculturally related occupations are still excluded from other major labor legislation, including the unemployment insurance programs, the Labor-Management Relations Act, the Fair Labor Standards Act, and most State workman's compensation acts.

Because we have been oblivious of the rural poor, we have abetted both rural and urban poverty, for the two are closely linked through migration. The hour is late for taking a close look at rural poverty, gaining an understanding of its consequences, and developing programs for doing something about it. The Commission is unanimous in the conviction that effective programs for solving the problems of rural poverty will contribute to the solution of urban poverty as well.

The facts of rural poverty * * * are summarized in the paragraphs that follow.

Rural poverty in the United States has no geographic boundaries. It is acute in the South, but it is present and serious in the East, the West, and the North. Rural poverty is not limited to Negroes. It permeates all races and ethnic groups. Nor is poverty limited to the farm. Our farm population has declined until it is only a small fraction of our total rural population. Most of the rural poor do not live on farms. They live in the open country, in rural villages, and in small towns. Moreover, contrary to a common misconception, whites outnumber nonwhites among the rural poor by a wide margin. It is true, however, that an extremely high proportion of Negroes in the rural South and Indians on reservations are destitute.

Rural Poor Are Hungry

Hunger, even among children, does exist among the rural poor, as a group of physicians discovered recently in a visit to the rural South. They found Negro children not getting enough food to sustain life, and so disease-ridden as to be beyond cure. Malnutrition is even more widespread. The evidence appears in bad diets and in diseases which often are a product of bad diets.

Disease and premature death are startlingly high among the rural poor. Infant mortality, for instance, is far higher among rural poor than among the least privileged group in urban areas. Chronic diseases also are common among both young and old. And medical and dental care is conspicuously absent.

Unemployment and underemployment are major problems in rural America. The rate of unemployment nationally is about 4 percent. The rate in rural areas averages about 18 percent. Among farmworkers, a recent study discovered that underemployment runs as high as 37 percent.

The rural poor have gone, and now go, to poor schools. One result is that more than 3 million rural adults are classified as illiterates. In both educational facilities and opportunities, the rural poor have been shortchanged.

Most of the rural poor live in atrocious houses. One in every 13 houses in rural America is officially classified as unfit to live in.

Many of the rural poor live in chronically depressed poverty-stricken rural communities. Most of the rural South is one vast poverty area. Indian reservations contain heavy concentrations of poverty. But there also are impoverished rural communities in the upper Great Lakes region, in New England, in Appalachia, in the Southwest, and in other sections.

The community in rural poverty areas has all but disappeared as an effective institution. In the past the rural community performed the services needed by farmers and other rural people. Technological progress brought sharp declines in the manpower needs of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and mining. Other industries have not replaced the jobs lost, and they have supplied too few jobs for the young entries into the labor market. Larger towns and cities have taken over many of the economic and social functions of the villages and small towns.

The changes in rural America have rendered obsolete many of the political boundaries to villages and counties. Thus these units operate on too small a scale to be practicable. Their tax base has eroded as their more able-bodied wage earners left for jobs elsewhere. In consequence the public services in the typical poor rural community are grossly inadequate in number, magnitude, and quality. Local government is no longer able to cope with local needs.

Few Opportunities

As the communities ran downhill, they offered fewer and fewer opportunities for anyone to earn a living. The inadequately equipped young people left in search of better opportunities elsewhere. Those remaining behind have few resources

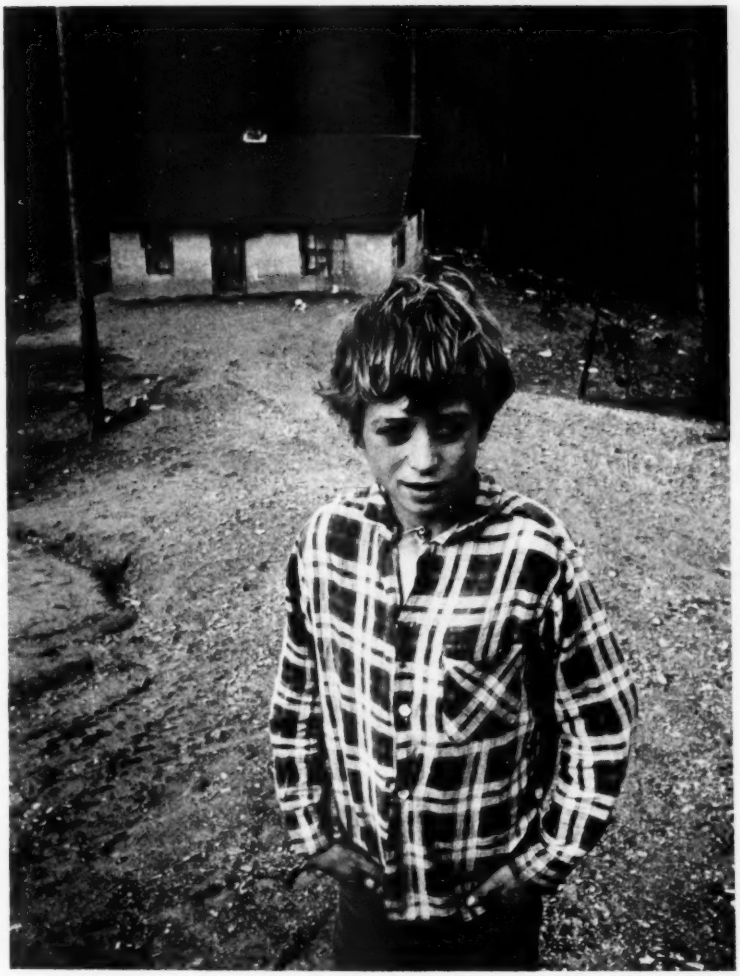
with which to earn incomes adequate for a decent living and for revitalizing their communities.

For all practical purposes, then, most of the 14 million people in our poverty areas are outside our market economy. So far as they are concerned, the dramatic economic growth of the United States might as well never have happened. It has brought them few rewards. They are on the outside looking in, and they need help.

Congress and State legislatures from time to time have enacted many laws and appropriated large sums of money to aid the poverty stricken and to help rural America. Very little of the legislation or the money has helped the rural poor. Major farm legislation directed at commercial farms has been successful in helping farmers adjust supply to demand, but it has not helped farmers whose production is very small. And because major social welfare and labor legislation has discriminated against rural people, many of the rural poor—farmers and farmworkers particularly—have been denied unemployment insurance, denied the right of collective bargaining, and denied the protection of workman's compensation laws.

This Commission questions the wisdom of massive public efforts to improve the lot of the poor in our central cities without comparable efforts to meet the needs of the poor in rural America. Unfortunately, as public programs improve the lot of the urban poor without making similar improvements in conditions for the rural poor, they provide fresh incentive for the rural poor to migrate to the central cities. The only solution is a coordinated attack on both urban and rural poverty.

The Commission has endeavored to chart a course to wipe out rural poverty. Emphasis has been placed on the problems of poor rural people, and problems of impoverished rural communities. Changes in existing programs and development of new programs are considered. Action on the immediate needs of the rural poor is emphasized, as well as action to change the conditions which made them poor. Human development and physical resources needed for this development are stressed. Improving the operation of the private economy in order to provide rural people with better opportunities for jobs and a decent living is emphasized.



It is the firm conviction of the Commission that the complexity of the problems of rural poverty precludes the success of a single program or approach. Programs addressed to immediate needs will not erase the underlying conditions creating and perpetuating rural poverty. Programs addressed to these conditions will not immediately help the poor. The Commission's recommendations complement and reinforce one another. In total, the recommendations will go far to solve the problems of rural poverty.

The Commission is convinced that the abolition of rural poverty in the United States, perhaps for the

(*Continued on page 25*)

Tomato picking—10 years ago and today.

An Attack on Rural Poverty

Excerpted from the report of the
RURAL MANPOWER SERVICES TASK FORCE

The three-man task force was chaired by Dr. Varden Fuller, a rural manpower specialist at the University of California. Assisting him were Thomas H. Bride of the Federal Products Corp., Providence, R.I., and Dr. Daniel W. Sturt of Michigan State University.

The Secretary of Labor, recognizing the acuteness of the rural poverty problem, appointed a task force last July to investigate the scope and causes of rural poverty and to examine present programs of the manpower services directed to the rural population.

Bureau of Employment Security Administrator Robert C. Goodwin, in a letter supplementing the Secretary's directive, emphasized present resources in directing the task force to find out the answer to the question: "Where do deficiencies exist and what reorganization or redirection of present resources is needed to overcome them?" Mr. Goodwin also asked for recommendations as to the first steps to be taken.

The task force made its report in January 1968, and they followed the instructions from Mr. Goodwin closely. The task force studied findings of a number of related bodies concerning rural manpower and poverty: The 1967 Manpower Report of the President; "Food and Fiber for the Future," the 1967 report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Food and Fiber; "The People Left Behind," the 1967 report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty (a summary of this report appears in this issue of EMPLOYMENT *on p. 16); and "Communities of Tomorrow: Agriculture 2000," published by the Department of Agriculture.*

A representative comment is found in the report of the Commission on Food and Fiber:

The Commission recommends a major expansion and improvement of the Federal-State Employment Service.

This Service is not functioning effectively in many States to help rural people find off-farm jobs. Nor does it provide the counseling, testing, and other employment services needed. A Service is needed that could perform the testing and then inform the applicant quickly of the job opportunities suited to his abilities throughout the country.

The Commission recommends stricter Federal supervision or complete federalizing, where needed, of the Federal-State Employment Service to eliminate racial bias and bias against rural people in general, and to assure greater effectiveness of the Service.

The report of the task force expresses general agreement with these evaluations of program fragmentation, ineffectiveness, and unequal treatment, as well as the potentials for a more useful and effective government role in rural community and human resource development.

In accordance with the foregoing widely held points of view, we believe that a reorganization and redirection of BES resources is warranted * * *.

Since the principal and sometimes exclusive BES presence in rural areas has been the Farm Labor Service (FLS), the greatest impact of redirection will fall upon that unit and its clientele. Under its legislative mandate, FLS serves principally farm employers and farmworkers. In practice, the thrust of its effort has come to center upon recruitment of seasonal labor for fruit and vegetable growers.

We anticipate that the farm labor market will become more orderly and that employers will gain self-competence in recruiting, holding and managing workers, while workers will acquire more self-competence in finding and choosing employment. Employment relations are likely to become more stable and continuous. These are desirable directions of change which government should encourage. Accordingly, the public manpower role needs to be shifted from trying to meet specific deficiencies of an unstructured and chaotic labor market to that of initiative and aid in the development of a more orderly one. * * * We believe that the public role should become developmental, with emphasis upon the provision of organizational leadership and the establishment of guidelines in order to improve the capacities of both farmer and worker and in order to improve the employment environment.

This transition, the report recommends, must be carried out in an evolutionary manner, with no flurry or fanfare. Farm employers and their organizations ought not be given the impression that suddenly they are to be abandoned. While seasonal labor will be utilized for a long time, improved technology is expected to greatly reduce the numbers of workers required. Consequently, for practical reasons, farm labor recruitment should continue to have a substantial role within the framework of a more comprehensive rural manpower program.

The task force, considering rural equality in service, pointed out that the rural poor have a low level of education and the school systems in many of the rural States have failed to meet the demands of the advancing society. Because of these factors,

Mechanical potato digging.

there is a need for extraordinary outreach approaches to overcome the diffidence and slow response to opportunities. It also means starting the process of human development at a lower level, and thus at a higher cost. A further complication is the three decades of high off-farm migration that has left behind on the farm a population combining the disabilities of age, mental and physical handicaps, skill obsolescence, and sometimes the psychologically, if not actually, effective bonds of the plantation and sharecropping systems. These same problems beset ex-miners and reservation Indians.

The report continues:

Finally, there are political realities which are quite peculiar to the rural sector which must be confronted in candor. In addition to all their other obstacles, rural people do not have cohesive, protective clientele associations functioning on behalf of either human or community development. They are not able to make demands for program or to shield what they may have from assault. Rural political power is concentrated in general on commodity associations of commercial farmers that are mainly concerned with the welfare of commodities and the administration of legislation of the complex of farm production control, price, and income programs. They tend to be indifferent, if not actually antagonistic, to what they regard as "socialistic" government activities. And, as many historical events have demonstrated, these farmer organizations have power and influence at both legislative and administrative levels of government. In consequence of this imbalance of political power, determination at the Federal level to conduct a significant rural manpower program is critical. Some accommodations may have to be made, but hopefully they will not be concessions of great consequence. Others, including the Food and Fiber Commission and the Rural Poverty Commission, have considered the possibility that the Employment Service should be federalized to meet this and related problems inherent in the Federal-State relationship. There may be merits in an all-Federal administration, but we believe that, for the present, it is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for progress in the directions we hold to be desirable. Under the Federal-State system, development of general goals and protective vigilance over their achievement should be the essence of the Federal role. Given the heterogeneity of particular locations and situations, the initial adaptations in administrative approaches should be in the States. As our proposal will emphasize, commitment to program goals rather than the maintenance of any particular form of State and local organization is the important thing.

The task force report goes into

some detail as to the roles of BES and the Employment Service in future rural manpower programs. "If BES is to have its appropriate role in rural manpower affairs, it cannot afford to be aloof from any of the activities mentioned or to be out of concert with the agencies that have program authorization in the rural field. For Employment Service State agency personnel, this means both a reorientation toward program content and, in posture, toward other agencies active in the field.

Despite the numerous appeals for coordination, manpower problems and their solutions are not likely to become the exclusive domain of any agency; they are societal in scope and in the attention that they demand. Community organizations and agencies, both public and private, all have an interest in manpower affairs and how they are managed. The more obvious groups that are concerned are those engaged in educational and economic development activities. The expansion of the employment base and the training of people for employment has communitywide economic and social dimensions, and requires a communitywide response. Similarly, the need for providing vocational assistance is so comprehensive and demanding that no one agency can expect to accomplish the task.

In some rural communities, the recent proliferation of publicly financed attempts to solve manpower problems at various levels has resulted in many organizations providing narrowly defined services within narrowly structured organizational frameworks. The result has been a lack of communications among these groups and oftentimes duplication of services and competition in lieu of cooperation. The need for community leadership in manpower is clear.

In other rural communities, manpower problems have received little attention. Educational institutions are not geared to manpower needs, vocational assistance is nonexistent or difficult to find, and the development of job opportunities remote in the minds of the citizenry. There is needed a community awakening relative to the world of work.

The Employment Service should provide the expertise, the organizational and educational leadership, and the statesmanship relative to all rural manpower matters. Operating in a catalytic and coordinating fashion, it should accept the responsibility for manpower matters in their broadest aspects. It should attempt to thread a manpower dimension into the social, economic, and political fabric of the community.

Real leadership in this regard requires a special appreciation of what other organizations, agencies, and private citizens can do to help solve manpower problems. Working through others can have a leavening and enlarging program impact more nearly commensurate with the task. If the Employment Service personnel were to accept the operational posture of working with and through others, their impact would be multiplied.

A new type of public servant—a manpower statesman—is required to activate and lead communities in developing a new appreciation for manpower affairs and affecting a concerted manpower effort at the community level. He needs a new set of skills for working with groups and new insights for understanding the rural community power structure. A different operational philosophy for the Employment Service is also required, but the payoff is high in terms of total manpower service for people.

The Task Force Proposals

The task force recommended the following reorganization and the redirection of present resources:

I. At the Federal level and within the USES, there should be established a new program and administrative component called the Rural Manpower Service. This will be formed from and use the staff and resources of the present Office of Farm Labor Service (OFLS); smaller communities program; appropriate elements of the outreach program; and a proportionate share of the resources available for the development of counseling, testing, training, and other technical services.

II. There should be established the position of associate director, USES, in charge of the rural manpower program; two assistant directors—one in charge of a technical service unit encompassing research, evaluation, and program development functions; and the other, a field operations unit encompassing job development and recruitment, mobile teams, and special program functions, such as a rural jobs task force for minority groups.

III. At the regional level, there should be established the position of associate director, USES, in charge of the rural manpower program.

IV. At the State level, there should be direct line authority from the SES director to all local offices in rural areas; in most States, it is likely that the responsibility of the rural manpower program will be appropriately discharged through an associate director. However, in dominantly rural States, the director may appropriately keep the responsibility for the rural manpower program and allocate the responsibilities of other sectors.

V. The rural manpower program would encompass the full spectrum of manpower services to the extent they are needed, including the labor recruitment activities

of the FLS. In order to improve its posture of leadership in community manpower affairs, we suggest that all personnel associated with the rural manpower program be relieved of compliance duties, such as those related to importation of foreign labor, determination of strike status, housing standards, registration of crew leaders, etc.

VI. Each State agency should be required to prepare a plan of rural manpower program service. This should be the primary basis for operation—budgeting, allocations, evaluation, and determining the degree of accomplishment of established goals. In the event a State should fail to meet this requirement, the initiative should be with the national administration to develop and sustain such a program to the extent needed.

VII. While the national administration should have ultimate and final responsibility, the regional administrative staff should have delegated to it the authority and primary responsibility to approve State programs (including the annual program proposal), to review and evaluate current execution of programs and annual reports of accomplishment, and to approve any request from a State for revision of an approved program, and such other activities as are associated with item VIII below.

VIII. Fiscal controls should be established to prevent the transfer or use for other purposes of funds requested, budgeted, appropriated, and allocated for the rural manpower services program.

IX. The national administration should develop standards for guidance of the States in the recruitment and retention of personnel, including minimum qualifications, education and experience, the examination process, job specifications and salary levels, and the administrative process of selection and appointments. The resources of the national administration should be made available to the States to assist them in maintaining a program to comply with the standards established.

EDITOR'S NOTE: A step in this direction has already been taken by the Secretary of Labor in his recent directive moving the Farm Labor Service into the USES.

USDA photo

PEACH HARVEST IN CALIFORNIA. A tractor moves a field-packing sled to a new location in a peach orchard near Reedley. This highly perishable fruit goes directly from trees into packing boxes, cutting off the time formerly necessary to move peaches into the hands of the consumers.

The People Left Behind

(*Continued from page 19*)

first time in any nation, is completely feasible. The Nation has the economic resources and the technical means for doing this. What it has lacked, thus far, has been the will. The Commission rejects the view that poverty, in so rich a Nation, is inevitable for any large group of citizens.

The main body of the Commission's report spells out these recommendations in detail, giving action required by all branches of government, local, State, and Federal, as well as by private individuals and groups. The major thrust of the recommendations is discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

(1) The Commission recommends that the United States adopt and put into effect immediately a national policy designed to give the residents of rural America equality of opportunity with all other citizens. This must include equal access to jobs, medical care, housing, education, welfare, and all other public services, without regard to race, religion, or place of residence.

(2) The Commission recommends, as a matter of urgency, that the national policy of full employment, inaugurated in 1946, be made effective. The need is even greater in rural areas than in urban areas. The Commission urges that this need be given priority in legislation and appropriations. To the extent that private enterprise does not provide sufficient employment for all those willing and able to work, the Commission believes it is the obligation of the Government to provide it.

(3) The Commission makes recommendations here concerning the revamping of the welfare program, coupled with the Food Stamp Program.

(4) The Commission recommends a thorough overhauling of our manpower policies and programs, particularly including public employment services, in order to deal effectively with rural unemployment and underemployment. The Commission deplores the fact that the richest, most powerful nation in history compels millions of its citizens to engage in aimless wandering in search of jobs and places to live. The recommendations of the Commission aim at a comprehensive and active manpower program which can be an effective weapon against poverty.

Recommendations (5) through (11) involve activities of other agencies of the Government, including such subjects as education, medical care, family planning, public housing, outmoded political subdivisions, citizen participation in programs, and a new look at the farm support programs.

(12) Without effective government at all levels, the recommendations in this report will not result in the eradication of rural poverty. The Commission recommends changes in program development and administration to facilitate and encourage the effective involvement of local, State and Federal governments.

Manpower Development

(*Continued from page 15*)

county requesting participation in the program.

3. In extending the project to other States, the Government agencies involved should first establish the plan in one or two counties in each State and then, in light of experience, extend the program to other sections of the State.

A comprehensive manpower program for rural areas under the concerted services approach should help individuals obtain the general education and work skills they need to achieve their maximum earning potential in line with their interests and aptitude, and should help meet the complex skill requirements of the area's employers. Elements of a well-rounded manpower development program for rural areas under the concerted services approach embrace the following:

1. Measures to insure good elementary and secondary education for all young people in rural areas.

2. Financial assistance to help needy youngsters stay in school and to move on to any higher education for which they may be qualified.

3. Effective vocational education—emphasizing skills in growing industries and occupations. This should include the provision of training and work experience opportunities for jobless out-of-school youth.

4. Retraining facilities for unemployed adults, supplemented by allowances to help them support their families during the training period.

5. Facilities for part-time adult education to help employed workers upgrade and update their skills and knowledge.

6. Alternatives in the form of work opportunity or income maintenance when work is not available or training not feasible.

7. Day-care centers for children of working or training mothers.

Experience to date with the pilot projects has shown that Federal and State agencies working together with the local leaders can effectively bring education and training opportunities to rural residents. The approach explored by the projects provides an effective means for introducing new programs, such as job training for welfare recipients under Title V of the Economic Opportunity Act, and the Human Resources Development Program of the public Employment Service. High priority should be given to extending this promising new approach. The Nation can ill afford to let the disadvantaged residents of rural areas remain unassisted. It is totally inconsistent with an expanding economy to permit this vast source of manpower to remain untapped. The manpower policies and techniques being developed in the Concerted Services Program offer new hope to rural America.

50 YEARS AGO

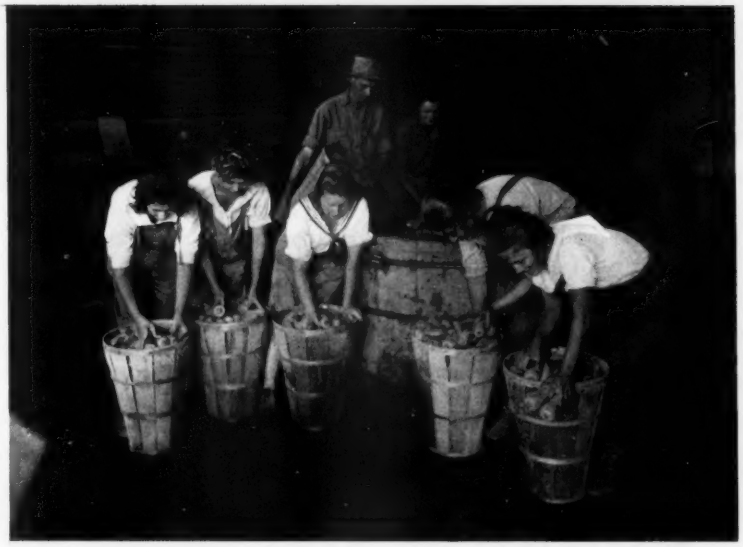
New York State's Employment Bureau Met a Farm Labor Crisis

CHARLES B. GARNETT

In peace and war, during prosperity and depression, a public employment service farm labor program has operated uninterruptedly since the turn of the century, although not always under the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor. Throughout that period, there have been many emergencies that have led to shortages of farm laborers, sorely needed to harvest our Nation's crops. With few exceptions, the farm labor representatives of the public employment services have come through with a program to find the needed workers.

A search of the records reveals that one of the most critical shortages of farmworkers occurred 50 years ago. Among the many programs organized to meet that shortage was one conducted by the New York State Employment Bureau. Cause of the farm labor shortage was the military manpower demand of World War I, and the solution was the appointment of women farm labor specialists to recruit women to work on the farms.

Elizabeth Bache Coleman, of



GRANDMA WAS A RUGGED GAL IN HER DAY!

In 1918, with the young manpower gone to war, the Employment Bureau in New York recruited young women to help meet the farm labor shortage. Hundreds of teachers, college students, secretaries, factory workers, and housewives volunteered to weed the onions, hoe the cabbage, cut and bale the hay, harvest the oat crop, milk the cows and churn the butter, pull the carrots, dig the potatoes, and send the stuff to market. They got the job done in grand style—there was always a demand for more farmerettes than could be filled by the employment service recruiters. These pictures were made 50 years ago on farms in New Jersey, Connecticut, and New York State. Note the bib overalls worn by a few of the farmerettes. This attire was considered "too bold" by some of the volunteers who did the hard and hot work garbed in ankle-length skirts, high-laced shoes, and starched shirtwaists. Others compromised by wearing voluminous bloomers.

Washington, D.C., one of those farm labor specialists, recently made available a 1918 report of the New York State Food Commission describing the program, and a collection of photographs showing the women at work on the farms. Following her work with the New York State Employment Bureau, Mrs. Coleman moved to Washington and first joined the staff of the Department of Labor's Children's Bureau and later the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions. Although she retired some years ago, she remains active in many programs for women and farmworkers.

The following description of the women's farm labor program is taken from the 1918 report of the New York State Food Commission.

Women Farm Labor Specialists

The appointment of eight women farm labor specialists to recruit women for farmwork was a new feature added this year by the State Food Commission to the machinery for meeting the farm labor shortage. The function of these women farm labor specialists is not only to secure women to go to farms, but to show the farmers how they can employ women and see that the women are placed under proper conditions.

It was recognized that the United States, like England, would be forced to call upon its women to help in food production. But it was also felt that if the women were drawn into this work, as they would be inevitably, their employment should be fully safeguarded in respect to physical strain, hours of labor and living conditions.

These eight women were assigned to carry on this work through the offices of the State Employment Bureau, of the State Industrial Commission in Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, Binghamton, Albany, and New York.

As a result of an experiment conducted in 1917 by the Committee on Agriculture of the Mayor's Committee of Women on National Defense of New York City, in cooperation with the State Employment Bureau, definite standards were decided upon; namely that no girl under 18 years of age should be registered, that every woman must pass a physical examination, and that every place of employment must be inspected. An 8-hour day was set as a standard, with a maximum of 54 hours weekly to allow for necessary overtime due to weather conditions.

The success of the movement so far may be judged from the fact that by June 30, 1918, calls had come from farmers for 4,288 women for farmwork; 3,324 women had been registered; and 984 were actually placed at work, while several large units were planned to begin work in the early part of July. About two-thirds of the 984 women had been sent to work on general and truck farms. It may be of interest that in New York City, by July 1st, 510 women had been placed in farmwork, as compared with 603 men.

A large proportion of the women registered were college girls, teachers, stenographers, clerical workers, saleswomen, and a few industrial workers.

The aim in recruiting was to draw into this seasonal summer work all women otherwise unemployed at this period. They represented the best types, women who were able to take up this strenuous work in a fine spirit and to stick to it because they were needed.

Practically all the women were sent out on the unit plan, each unit in charge of a responsible supervisor. A few women were sent out singly, such as women to work on dairy farms, women to drive tractors, to care for poultry, or to work as "general farmhands."

The largest number, however, was sent out in groups. According to the unit plan, a group of women live together in a center, and work on one farm or on several. This plan relieves the farmer of all responsibility for their food and social conditions.

In the case of practically all the units organized by the women farm labor specialists, the expenses of providing proper housing and furnishings, as well as transportation, has been met by the farmers. The aim has been to make the units self-supporting. The farmers pay the workers directly, who share their living expenses on a cooperative basis. In addition each worker contributes 50 cents a week toward the wages of a cook and a supervisor. The girls assist with cleaning and dishwashing. The weekly expenses including the 50 cents for the cook and the supervisor, vary in different units from $3 to $4.50, according to the locality. The supervisors are given assistance by the farm labor specialists in planning the housekeeping arrangements, buying of supplies, and in planning of meals, in order to keep the cost as low as possible.

Women have been sent to work on truck farms, at planting, hoeing, weeding, and gathering, on dairy farms at milking and caring for stock, at berrypicking, cherrypicking, and at general farmwork. Farmers throughout the State, from Buffalo to Long Island, have called upon the office to supply women. Two women were sent to a large dairy farm in Vermont; a unit of 60 women was organized by the New York office for a truck farm in New

Charles B. Garnett is on the staff of the Office of Farm Labor Service.

Jersey, said to be the largest in the world. An up-to-date general farm in New Jersey has a unit of eight women. The Rochester office organized a unit of 150 girls for a large cherry orchard. The unit was made up chiefly of college girls, the housekeeping to be done by the domestic science department of Mechanics Institute.

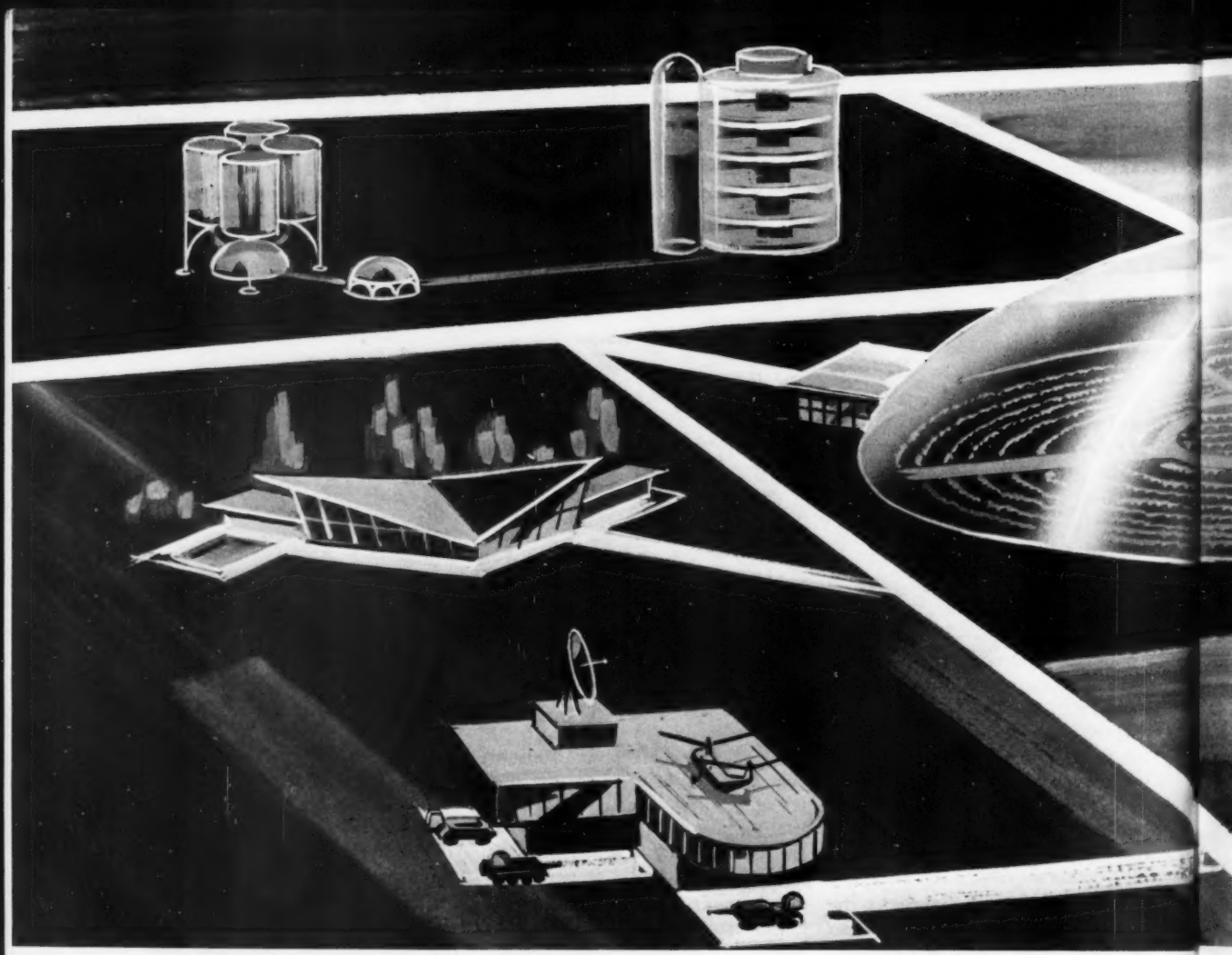
The offices have also placed several hundred women in units, especially on Long Island, organized under the auspices of the Women's Land Army of America.

The wages vary according to locality and kind of work. In berrypicking and fruitpicking, the pay is by the quart or pound. In general farmwork and on truck farms, the pay is by the hour or day, varying from $1.50 to $2 a day, and housing. In some parts of the State, the women are averaging $25 to $30 a month, after all expenses are paid.

A brassard has been given each woman sent out, announcing that she is a member of the New York State Women's Farm Labor Reserve. This has become a much prized souvenir of the summer work.

Both employers and workers so far have been most enthusiastic about the experiment of the Commission. Employers, skeptical at first, have become warm advocates when they have been induced to try this new kind of labor, and have found that what a woman may lack in strength is often made up in her interest and intelligence. The farm bureaus and granges as well as the farm labor specialists, throughout the State, have given splendid support and have had a great share in making the experiment a success, and pointing the way toward an increased force to carry on the work another year, when it will no longer be an experiment but a recognized part of the food production machinery in every section of the State.

It is interesting to note that in 1918 the public employment service was working toward improvements in wages, hours, working, and living conditions for farmworkers. Now—50 years later—further improvements for farmworkers are still a major objective.

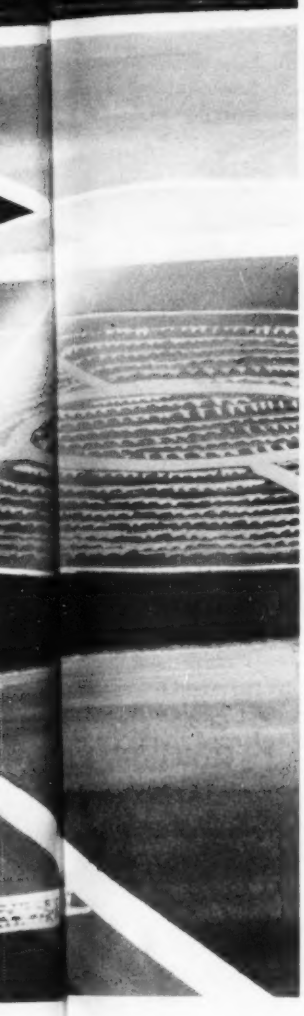


BY THE YEAR 2000

MILK FROM CARROT TOPS

Tractors that run without operators * * * milk from carrot tops and pea pods * * * cows with 1,000 offspring * * * plastic domes covering acres of cropland * * * corn plants that look more like small pine trees.

These are just a few of the things which may become commonplace on American farms by the turn of the century as farmers win their battle against the growing food crisis which threatens mass starvation around the world as population continues to mushroom.



A. This may well be the "typical" American farm in the year 2000. Right background: high-rise cattle barn, with completely controlled environment. Left background: warehouse complex and refinery where waste from the barn is purified and recirculated back to the barn. Right: Plastic dome covering 10 acres. Left: Farmhouse. Front: Control center from which the farmer will direct an array of equipment and personnel by electronic machines which are just now being developed.

This projection of agriculture is part of a study conducted by Ford Motor Co.'s U.S. Tractor and Implement Operations. Portions of the study were described in the recent report entitled "Agriculture 2000."

The study of agriculture of the future covers an area so broad that paring down results to a manageable public presentation was a major task in itself. Many study findings were omitted from the "Agriculture 2000" presentation simply as a matter of expediency.

"Agriculture today is an extremely complex field, and when elements of future technologies are added to this, the final results could be staggering," said John A. Banning, general operations manager of Ford Motor Co.'s U.S. Tractor and Implement Operations.

He explained that some of the subjects investigators covered in their study, but which are not used in the public presentation, involved such areas as the roles to be played by the Government and land grant universities, possible applications of solar energy, use of sewage for fertilizing purposes, desalination of sea water, and new food processing methods.

The company spent more than 2 years in research and gathering the material for the report. The first step was to assemble projections of Ford engineers, product planners, and other technical personnel. Then the company commissioned two Michigan State University professors to convene a panel of agricultural experts.

Headed by Dr. Carl Hall, chairman of the Agricultural Engineering Department, and Dr. John Harris, associate professor in agricultural economics, the panel included specialists from such fields as crop and food science, biochemistry, biophysics, animal husbandry, dairying, and others.

Ford said it conducted the study to project what kind of farms and farmers will be required to feed the huge anticipated population as of the year 2000. Taking part were technical personnel, a panel of scientists convened by Michigan State University, and a team of farm specialists who canvassed hundreds of scientists and agricultural experts from many countries.

The findings were reduced to certain specific subjects on which major agreement could be reached. It was these areas of the report which were condensed into "Agriculture 2000."

"The efficient farmer of the year 2000 is a super breed of farmer, with super skills and super tools," says the report. "The heart of his operation will be a control center equipped with a wide array of electronic wizardry to help him produce crops two to five times as abundant as today."

The unmanned tractors will be controlled by computer tape, buried wires, or sensing devices, and their courses plotted on headquarter units similar to radar sets which follow today's airplane flights.

Cows, which will have quadrupled their own milk production, will be backed up by the manufac-

ture of identical milk from carrot tops and pea pods. Fertile eggs will be transplanted from superior cows into common incubator cows, allowing a superior cow to "mother" as many as 1,000 calves in her lifetime, compared with today's average of 10.

To control environment and growing conditions completely, huge plastic or glass domes, covering 10 acres or more, will be erected, (photo A). Plant growth will be recorded automatically so the farmer can provide proper light, water, and nutrients by turning a dial.

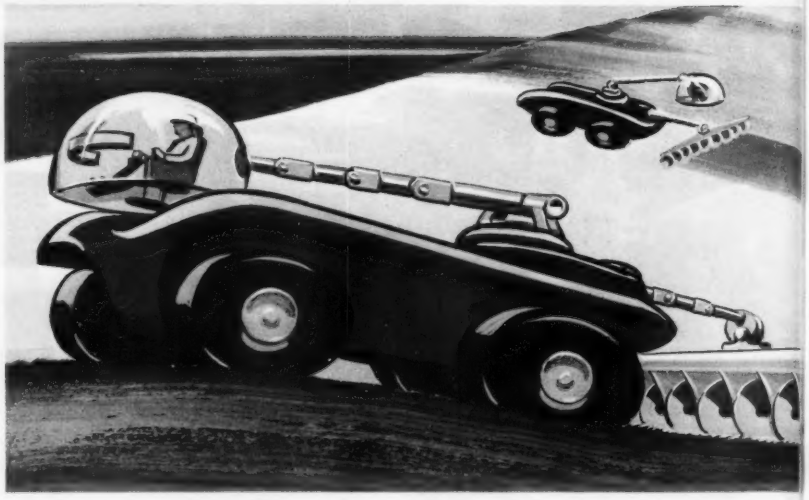
Today's tall cornfields will give way to new, squatty plants shaped like pine trees to lap up extra sun's energy. The ears will be attached to the top for easier harvesting. Corn yields will zoom to 500 or more bushels per acre, compared with today's national average of about 75 bushels.

The Ford report, based on the concensus of leading world farm experts, stated that if present trends continue for the next 30 years, world population will increase as much as it has in the previous million years—to more than 6 billion.

The world food crisis, it said, has three geographical dimensions— an area comprising about 40 nations of Africa, Asia, and Latin America, where food per capita has dropped steadily since World War II; the area behind the Iron and Bamboo Curtains; and the developed countries, which also must plan for their own population growth.

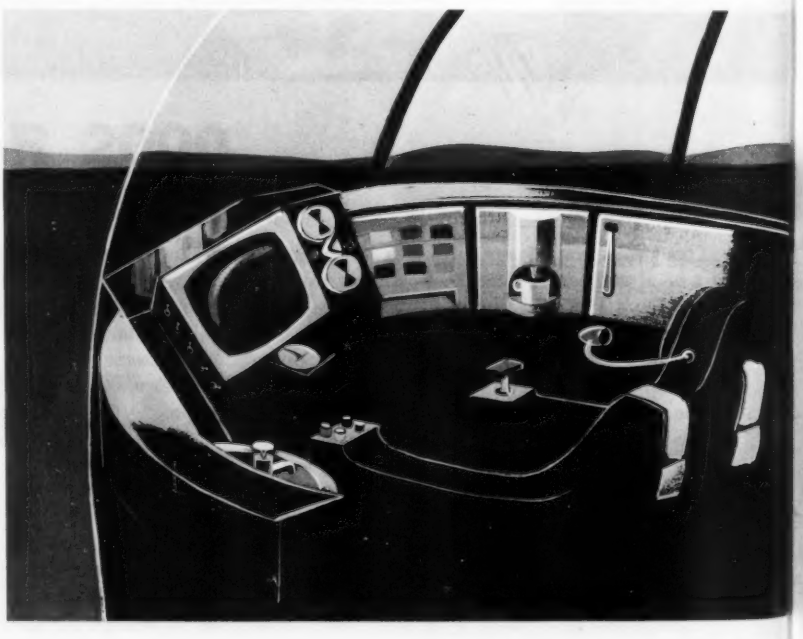
Among the new machinery projected by the report are huge four- or six-wheel-drive tractors powered by electric drive, fuel cells, or efficient storage batteries (photo B). Cabs include air conditioning, food warmer, coffeemaker, refrigerator, television, and even a sink (photo C).

Chain-reaction machines will harvest one crop and plant another right behind, all in one operation. Some equipment will be airborne,



B. This tractor model positions the driver up front in a mobile cab unit for maximum visibility. Or he can propel the cab to the rear, as on the tractor in the background, for a closer look at how his implements are performing.

C. Cab of a tractor projected for the year 2000. From right: refrigerator, coffeemaker, food warmer, television set connected to farmer's headquarters or to other vehicles, and sink.



such as a combination hovercraft-helicopter for spraying.

Staggering production figures will be achieved, states the report. It projects yields of 300 bushels of wheat per acre, compared with today's 27; 175 bushels of soybeans, compared with today's 25; 30 tons of forage, compared with 3; 30,000 pounds of milk per cow, compared with 8,000; and 1,000 pounds of beef at 10 months of age, compared with 750 today.

But because of the needs of less fortunate countries, says the report, this new system of farming will have to be backstopped by other astounding production ideas, including farming of the seas, with hybrid trout ranches, feeding human beings on algae, and building vast microbe refineries to raise rich proteins from oils as we now raise beef from grass.

The report will be translated into Spanish, French, German, and other languages and will be made available for public showings worldwide.

"While our primary purpose was to determine which developments could affect our own plans in the future, one of the side benefits of the study is the opportunity it provides us to tell the public the story of the magnificent work being done by our farmers," said Mr. Banning.

"After all, it is they who will win the battle against world hunger, and we are pleased to help them achieve the recognition they deserve, not only for the job they are doing now, but for the one they will do in the future."

Concludes the Ford study, "All of the evidence shows there is no need for hunger in the world of tomorrow. But we must gear immediately for the gigantic job ahead. Zero hour is now!"

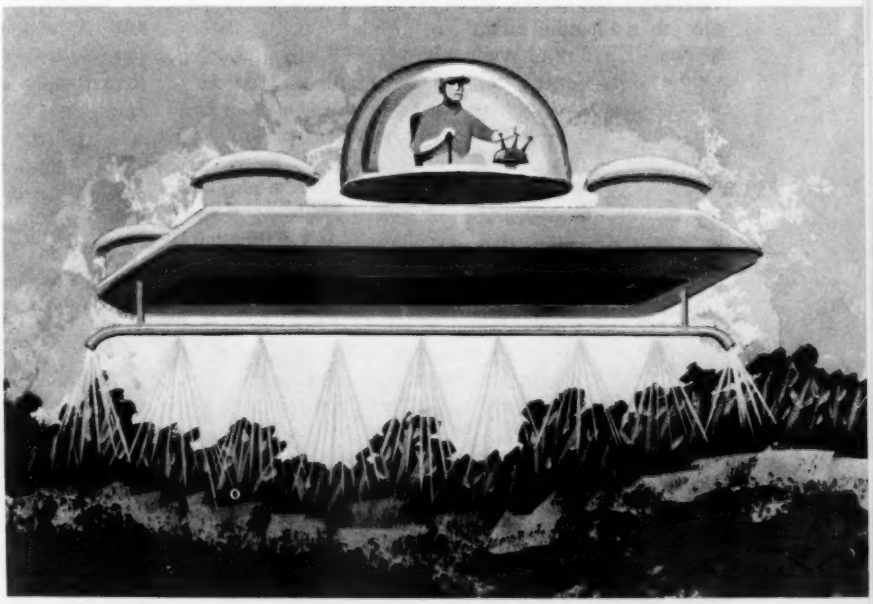
"Agriculture 2000," even this brief report of the publication, gives to the agricultural employment specialist a bleak picture of the future of the farm laborer, and even of some of those in the semiskilled jobs. The equipment is most sophisticated, much of it requiring highly skilled, if not professional, operators. Some of the new equipment, of course, at the time will be considered easy to operate, but the skills that will be involved will require know-how that is entirely foreign to the farm jobs of today.

The farmer, himself, more and more will be required to acquire much broader professional skills, not only in the agricultural knowledge now required, but also in areas now totally foreign to his field, such as electronics and air conditioning, to name a few. Obviously, the farmer, be he owner or manager, will require extensive advanced training, probably at least a baccalaureate degree in college.

The other workers also will need skills in specialized areas, many not now familiar to the agricultural labor field. Today, the only time an electronics technician goes out to the farm is to repair the television or perhaps the citizen's band radio system. It will be a different picture in 2000, though, with all the expected sophisticated equipment controlled by computers, radar, and even systems not yet invented that, at least on the large farms, will require full-time services by an electronics technician. A similar story is true concerning the farm mechanic, who today repairs tractors, pumps, planting and harvesting machinery, and almost anything else around the farm. The new farm mechanic will be involved with repairs to servomechanisms, air-conditioning plants, hovercraft (photo D), and airplanes, and many other new mechanical devices in addition.

These are but a representative few of the many changes to be expected in the farm labor picture during the next third of a century. The changes that have taken place over the past two decades have been phenomenal, but they will seem as nothing with the rapid advances in the application of all the sciences to agriculture.

D. By the turn of the century, farmers may do some of their most important jobs from the air, with equipment such as this combination helicopter-hovercraft. Engineers already have built a machine which lifts off the ground by low air pressure to spray cranberry vines on rough ground.



THEY SERVED . . . AND WERE SERVED

STANLEY N. FOGED

"I guess I broke my pick."

That was the comment of a convalescing disabled veteran in the Portland, Oreg., Veterans Administration Hospital to a local office Veterans Employment Representative during one of the VER's regular hospital visits.

This veteran was talking about not being able to go back to his job of many years as a logger. The spinal fusion he had undergone just about disqualified him for any job in a logging camp.

The VER, Frank Waller, Jr., of the Portland Adult Opportunity Center, talked further with this patient, who soon showed he had a few good ideas on jobs he knew he could do and of some he wasn't so sure he could handle.

Out of this experience grew an idea, then a plan—the convalescence period, just before discharge from the hospital, would be an excellent time for disabled patients to think about and make plans for their future jobs.

And so, with the cooperation of the Social Service, Volunteer Service, and Psychological Service units and with the approval of the hospital administration, the first "Job Finding Techniques Training Session" was organized.

Each session is attended by six or eight patients under the guidance of Mr. Waller. Appropriate experts from the hospital and the Employment Service are called in as required. The patients are encouraged to express themselves and to converse on their mutual experiences and problems so that all can benefit. The main purpose of the group leader is to answer questions, help, guide, and stimulate discussion.

This program is now in full swing at the Portland VA Hospital. Popularity of the sessions has been responsible for increasing their frequency from once to twice a month, and plans are being made to add more sessions. Followup inquiries to the more than 100 veteran participants brought unanimous agreement that the sessions were helpful in preparing the patients for their subsequent job hunts. And there are success stories, too: The logger who became a logging supply salesman, the disabled truckdriver who took a job as a truck dispatcher, the amputee catskinner who became a leatherworker, and many more.

Not all veterans who need assistance are disabled. Howard W. West, State VER for Illinois, tells of a 27-year-old American Indian veteran who came to a Chicago Day Labor Office for a job so he could buy the tools he needed to take a better, skilled job. He was referred to the local VER, who learned that the young man could not purchase the needed tools on time, because he had no established credit. The VER contacted the Uptown Indian Center of the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, and the Cook County Department

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Stanley N. Foged is a writer-editor, U.S. Employment Service.

of Public Aid, all without results. A call to the credit manager of Sears Roebuck & Co. was successful. The young man was sent there for an interview and was granted $200 credit to buy the tools and equipment, and the company gave him several articles free of charge. With his tools, the young Indian was then placed with the Mack Truck Co., where he is now employed.

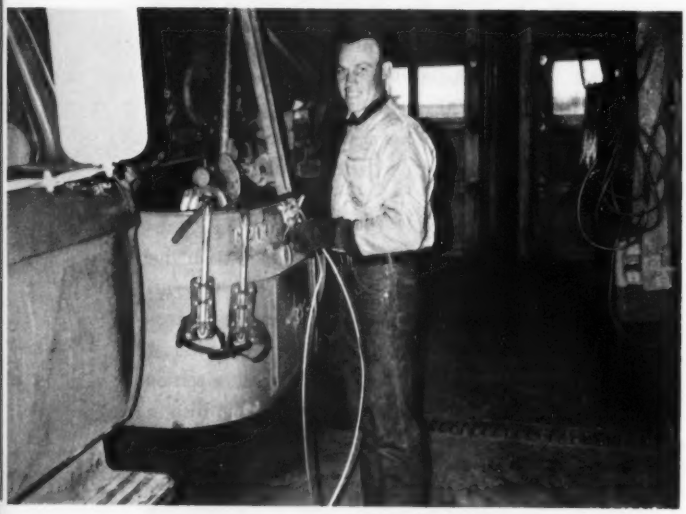
Women veterans, although not in such vast numbers as the men, are given equal treatment by the Veterans Employment Service. State VER Robert E. Fecteau of Maine relates this case: A young female veteran was contacted by the local office during the veteran's followup program. When she came into the local office, she was quite dejected because she had failed to find a job as a telephone operator. She felt she was well qualified because of her 3 years' experience in this work in the Army. She had, on her own, made quite a few applications and visits throughout the community in an effort to get a job, but with no success. The area had but a limited number of opportunities in this field of work, but the local VER decided to try some job development for the young lady. He called the local hospital, and the personnel director agreed to interview the girl—a week later she went to work there as a switchboard operator.

Also in Maine, a small upholstery shop is being successfully operated by a 50-year-old handicapped veteran, largely through efforts of the Employment Service and cooperation of other Government agencies. Seemingly, this man had just about everything going against him. He had received a medical discharge from the service in 1942, and is certified 30 percent disabled on the basis of neurosis by the Veterans Administration. He was a rehabilitated alcoholic who had been under psychiatric treatment for 2 years, with medical treatment for 2 years prior to that. So it was with great doubt that he was enrolled in an MDTA course for upholstering. But he completed the 24 weeks of training, and before long had set himself up in business with a $500 loan from a credit union. But, since the business was on the second floor, in a poor building in a poor part of town, underfinanced and understocked, and lacked a truck for pickup and delivery, by the end of 6 months it was nearly on the rocks. Several contacts were made with other agencies, with no results, and finally the local bank was approached for a loan to finance the new business. The bank said no, and this refusal opened the way for a request for assistance from the Small Business Administration. In less than 2 months a loan of $2,500 was delivered in person by an SBA representative. The business was saved, is now in a ground floor shop in a better location, and is flourishing.

In Pennsylvania, Joseph F. Welsh, State VER, reports this case among others: After 24 years with the same company, a World War II Purple Heart veteran found himself out of a job when the company transferred the entire activity to a distant city. This veteran had considerable self-confidence. He had been a senior insurance clerk and felt capable of stepping into a

Two members of the psychology department of the Portland VA Hospital talk with patients at a job-finding session.

An MDTA course and assistance from the Small Business Administration helped this veteran set up his own upholstering business.



This veteran was hired as an apprentice lineman by a power company.

similar job without difficulty. However, he was just under the magic age of 45, when many companies hesitate to hire; his arm, while not disabled, did have restricted movement because of the shell fragment wounds he had received in service. So, with these problems, the placement people in the Clerical and Professional Office had much difficulty in locating a job for him.

Finally, it was decided that the veteran should take an MDTA course as a data processing technician, lasting a year. He finished this training in the upper 10 percent of his class and was eventually placed with Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Co., subject to passing a physical examination. The examination turned up a heretofore unsuspected hernia. Inasmuch as the position would require much walking and standing, such a defect would be disqualifying. The company proposed that, if the veteran had the hernia corrected by surgery, he could start to work after being released from the hospital. The veteran did this and was eventually put to work as a computer program trainee, opening up an entire new field of work for him.

He Came To Say "Thanks"

A veteran in North Dakota has returned to the local VER twice, not to get a job, but to say "Thanks." W. M. Williamson, North Dakota State VER, tells the story of this grateful young veteran: He finished the eighth grade in a one-room rural school when nearly 16, and the only job he could get was as a farm laborer. He was a steady and conscientious worker who wanted to do better, but he was never able to break out, still earning only $200 a month. When he turned 21, he was married and still struggling at $1.25 an hour. Then he was drafted into the Army, where he became a lineman, climbing poles and stringing wire in Vietnam. Three days after his discharge from service, he came into the local office. He needed a job, but he knew his limited education was a handicap. However, he wanted something better for his family. He wanted to be a lineman again, but he thought that here, too, they wanted only high school graduates. The local VER arranged for an interview at the local power company for a possible job as apprentice lineman, and the young veteran was hired—in a job with a future and a living wage.

Two North Dakota boys were started on their training to become journeyman carpenters through the efforts of the local office VER in the Grand Forks office of the Employment Service. Randall was a high school dropout with only limited work experience in unskilled occupations. While in the Army, he passed his General Education Development test and was trained as a wireman. He felt his only possibility of a future was in this area of work, but there were no openings. David had worked as a baker prior to his Army service. In the Army he was trained as a clerk. Neither of these jobs appealed to him. Both men came to the local office in Grand Forks, where they were counseled and tested, and informed of the various types of training available to them. Both chose apprenticeship training in carpentry, although Randall was reluctant until he was assured he would not be the only beginner of his age group in the class. Three weeks following the start of the training, the local VER visited the class. He found both veterans happy with their choice of work, and the instructors assured him that

both were good students and would make competent carpenters.

It happened in Birmingham, and James C. Gates, the Alabama VER, tells of the impatient young Negro Vietnam veteran who came in expecting to criticize, but who a month later was all praise for the activities of the Youth Opportunity Center and his new job. He came to the local office on November 3, 1967 to file for a job and to find out about his servicemen's compensation privileges. After his claim for compensation was taken care of, he was interviewed by the local VER, who, on learning the veteran had been a medical corpsman, suggested referral to a number of local hospitals. He went first to the local VA hospital where he filled out an application as a nurse's assistant. This took up most of the day, and still there was no job. He went home and wrote a letter of complaint to the Department of Labor, criticizing the lack of information available. He didn't realize that possible jobs had to be searched out, developed. In a few days, the Youth Opportunity Center called him in for further counseling and gave him the General Aptitude Test Battery. Then an opening was developed at the University of Alabama Hospital as a nurse's assistant. He was referred, and on December 4 started work there. The hospital personnel officer suggested he take advantage of in-service and academic training available at the University Center. Later, this doubting, impatient veteran had a chance to praise the YOC and his new job as one of five YOC youths speaking before the chamber of commerce.

Trainees and Then Partners

A recent news letter from the Colorado Department of Employment reveals a success story in which a 36-year-old veteran of the Air Force in Korea and a 45-year-old World War II veteran were helped by MDTA training in coin-machine repair, and became partners in business. They visited the local Employment Service office in Greeley, saying they would like to attend the 24-week course in coin-machine repair in Denver, but they couldn't afford the tuition costs. After investigation, Joseph F. Evanoski, State VER for Colorado, was able to enter them in the course under MDTA in January 1967. Later, they inquired about possibly buying the school, and the owner was willing to sell. They formed a corporation and after some months were proprietors of the school. In the next few months, they were able to double their business and now have plans for further expansion. The coin-machine repair field is expanding rapidly and many now in the field are ready for retirement. The school now has students from 10 States and Canada, and has received job orders from as far away as Saigon, Guam, South Africa, and Alaska. These two men were transformed from insecure, middle-aged workers to men with a good productive future through a combination of the Employment Service, MDTA, and their own desires to achieve a secure future.

While attending college, this young veteran works part time in the occupation he learned in service.

Part-time work can be helpful, too, as is shown in this story related by Walter S. Carlson, State VER for Minnesota. Steve, a 21-year-old just released from the Marines, had a service occupation as a closed circuit television operator and technician. His arrival at the local office coincided with a discussion in the psychology department of the St. Cloud VA Hospital concerning the need for just such a closed-circuit TV system operator and technician in that department. Steve was sent for an interview with Dr. Gordon Henley and was hired to start work the next day. He works 20 hours or more a week, and since January he has been attending St. Cloud State College.

The foregoing are only a few representative cases from around the country. Veterans come in daily to the local VER's for assistance in getting jobs. Some get jobs, others need further counseling, and still others require training or additional education to make them employable. There is no average case; some are able bodied, others are disabled—physically or mentally or both. They vary in age from 17 to 60. But whoever the individual is, the local VER gives the services that are needed and gains the cooperation of other local, State, and Federal agencies for whatever services are available. Sometimes, it may seem there is a bit of a Houdini in each local VER—it all helps.

Profile of an Urban Rioter

Under a contract with the U.S. Department of Labor, the Behavior Research Institute of Detroit conducted an exhaustive research and interview project on some 500 Negro men arrested and jailed in last summer's riot in the Motor City.

The report of this study was released by the Department of Labor in March of this year. Some of the highlights of the findings are presented here.

For one thing, the average rioter was considerably older than had been supposed, and there was almost no evidence that the riot had been touched off, aided and abetted, by outside agitators or had been part of a conspiracy.

Nearly 20 percent of the 500 men interviewed stated that they did not know what caused the sudden and violent disturbance and less than 3 percent said they could place the blame on any outside influence.

The majority—over 60 percent—of all those questioned in this survey blamed the disorder on police actions, discrimination of long standing, lack of jobs, and poor living conditions. This survey reaffirms the earlier report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders that racial outbursts are tied to a massive tangle of social, economic, political, and psychological inequities that have developed over the past century but have become acute since the end of World War II.

However, this survey does not substantiate the widely held notion that rioters in general are people who have only recently arrived from the Deep South and who have become hopelessly frustrated and disillusioned by the complexities of urban living.

On the contrary, this survey shows that the average rioter who was regularly employed prior to the riot, and who was arrested and jailed by the Detroit police, had lived in that city more than 15 years, was just over 30 years of age, and was a blue-collar worker in manufacturing averaging about $120 per week.

While this wage equals the average wage in the manufacturing trades throughout the Nation as a whole, it is well below the $150 per week paid in the Detroit area at the time the explosive riot occurred last July.

The unemployment rate among the prisoners, however, was 22 percent—about five times higher than the average for the Detroit metropolitan area which at the time

of the riot stood at 4.5 percent.

Of the 500 prisoners interviewed, 267 were more than 25 years old. Of this age group, 43 were unemployed. Among the teenage prisoners, some 33 percent were jobless, though a considerable number of the juveniles had been attending school prior to the time of the riot.

Although a majority of the prisoners held after the riot had jobs at the time, one out of four of those arrested had lost an average of 4 months work during the past year.

These interviews showed that about one-third of the prisoners were high school graduates, but only 1 in 10 had had a skilled job or a job calling for an advanced education. Among the prisoners over 25, nearly 20 percent had not advanced beyond the eighth grade. More than half of this group were married, another 20 percent were separated, divorced, or widowed.

Over half of the prisoners had two or more children, and more than half of those with two or more children earned less than $120 per week.

When questioned as to how Negroes could best go about getting civil rights and removing the causes they felt led to the riot, 75.2 percent said they felt these goals could be achieved by nonviolent political action, united efforts, and through better education or the raising of self-esteem within the community.

Also, the majority of those interviewed expressed a positive belief that conditions for the Negro had improved markedly in the Detroit area and over the Nation generally.

The Behavior Research Institute interviewers talked at length with all prisoners who agreed to participate and who were still confined at five prison sites in the 2 weeks following the outbreak of the riot.

Following are some of the detailed findings of this survey conducted by graduate students from Wayne University, Detroit schoolteachers, and volunteers from the War on Poverty.

Employment and Earnings

Although the average pay for the employed prisoners was $120 a week, two-thirds of those reporting on both wages and unemployment experience (109) had periods of joblessness ranging from 1 week to 6 months or more.

Fully a fourth of those who reported the weeks lost by unemployment in the past year (125) said they lost 4 months or more; another fourth lost 5 to 15 weeks; less than 30 percent reported no work loss.

Occupation

Although about two out of five prisoners had a high school education or more, only a small number (17) had jobs calling for advanced education. More than one of every four prisoners (124) had a semiskilled job such as a machine operator or assembler. Almost one in five (79) worked in a service occupation. Some 59 who did not specilfy the type of work they performed held jobs in automobile plants; 52 of the prisoners were laborers, and 32 indicated they were skilled workers. (This information is based on replies from 430 prisoners.)

Education and Training

Of the 276 men arrested who were 25 or older, 83, or about one in three, were high school graduates. This compares with one out of six nonwhite male graduates of this age group in the general population and equals the average of all races. In addition, nearly 6 percent of those in the survey over age 25 had more than 12 years of schooling.

Almost one out of five prisoners (93) was a teenager. One out of three of these teenagers was a high school graduate. About one out of four of the 496 prisoners was between the ages of 20 and 24 (inclusive). In this age group, 43 of the 127 (34 percent) were high school graduates, and 10 in this age group had education beyond high school.

About one out of six prisoners had participated in a Federal training or poverty program. The younger prisoners were more likely to have been in such programs. About one in five of the prisoners under age 25 reported some kind of participation in a job training or poverty program as against only one in eight of the older prisoners.

Origin

Only about 15 percent of the prisoners had lived in Detroit 5 years or less. Almost 200 (40 percent) of the prisoners had been born in the Deep South (Florida, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Lousiana, Arkansas, and Texas). An additional 67 had been born in the border States (North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, West Virginia, Missouri, and Oklahoma). Of those born in the Deep South, over 40 percent had lived in Detroit for more than 15 years.

Almost half of the prisoners live with from four to seven persons. More than 10 percent are crowded into living quarters with eight or more others. Although 237 prisoners are single, only 80 reported that they lived alone. The average number of persons per household is over five.

Favorite Negro Leaders

About 50 percent (178) of the 363 prisoners who expressed a preference for a favorite Negro leader selected the Reverend Martin Luther King as their first choice. About 14 percent of the prisoners indicated that Stokely Carmichael was their favorite leader. Another 15 percent selected Muhammad Ali (Cassius Clay), Malcolm X, and Elijah Muhammad as their favorite leaders.

Of those who expressed a preference for Martin Luther King as their favorite Negro leader, the most frequently mentioned means of achieving civil rights was through nonviolent approaches such as political action. The next most frequently cited approach was a uni-

NUMBER OF PRISONERS WITH INCOME BY WEEKS OF WORK LOST

Usual salary per week	Number of weeks lost					
	Total reported	None	1–4	5–15	16–26	26 and over
Total reported	[1] 109	35	25	28	16	5
Under $40	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
$41 to $60	6	1	5	.....	.....	.....
$61 to $80	14	4	3	7	.....	.....
$81 to $100	25	6	8	5	5	1
$101 to $120	23	9	5	1	5	3
$121 to $150	30	12	4	10	4	.....
$151 to $200	6	1	.....	3	2	.....
Over $200	4	2	.....	2	.....	.....

[1] *Does not include those who did not report wages and full weeks of work lost.*

fied Negro front. The third and fourth most frequently mentioned solutions were education and raising self-esteem, respectively.

Prisoners who expressed a preference for Stokely Carmichael, Muhammad Ali, Malcolm X, and Elijah Muhammad (combined) most frequently mentioned nonviolent measures, followed by force and violence, as the best ways of securing civil rights. The third most mentioned means was a unified approach, followed by education and raising self-esteem. About 50 prisoners, who named a favorite leader did not offer any suggestions.

Prisoners' Views: Cause of Riot

Police brutality was, by far, the most frequent response of the prisoners to the question "What do you think caused this trouble in Detroit?" About 30 percent—159 of the 523 responses—(some prisoners gave more than one reason) pointed, in the view of the prisoners, to the police as the causal agent of the riot. Prisoners referred to specific incidents such as beatings and other physical violence and personal abuse on the part of the police.

The second most frequent reason given as to the cause of the riot was less specific, but can be summed up in the term "discrimination." Some of these responses indicated the frustrations and tensions resulting from ineffectual efforts of Negroes to end segregation and discrimination as the cause. Other responses emphasized poor housing and living conditions and lack of job opportunities (54). Many of the prisoners (114) stated that they did not know what caused the riot. About 40 responses referred to a specific incident involving a neighborhood bar (a "blind pig") as the cause of the trouble. These responses did not mention police brutality.

Where To Get More Information

Copies of this report or additional information on manpower programs and activities may be obtained from the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration in Washington, D.C. Publications on manpower are also available from the Department of Labor Regional Information Offices at the addresses listed below.

John F. Kennedy Building, Boston, Mass. 02203

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